

A LATIN GRAMMAR

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A LATIN GRAMMAR

BY

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PREFACE

THIS book has been written in the belief that a Latin Grammar, in order to meet the needs of pupils in secondary schools, should contain more than the elementary facts of the language. Beginners' books and grammatical appendices have to a certain extent superseded the strictly elementary grammar for the first two years of the school course. It seems, therefore, that a grammar, in order to be useful throughout the school course, should contain not only the ordinary and simple facts but also those which are more unusual or more complicated. The author believes that such a grammar best meets the demands of the secondary school, while at the same time it retains its usefulness through the college course. Familiarity with such a book acquired at school is of very great value to those who continue the study of Latin in college. In any case it is undoubtedly true that the proper use of a fairly complete grammar gives not only a wider but also a more appreciative and more permanent knowledge of the language.

While seeking to include even the more uncommon forms and constructions, the author has studiously excluded all material which would be confusing to the beginner and would be neglected by the more advanced student. He has endeavored to present the essentials with the greatest possible simplicity for the benefit of the younger pupil, and has clearly subordinated statements regarding the more unusual constructions by printing them in smaller type. At the same time he has had in mind the needs of the college undergraduate, which, as a matter of fact, except for the peculiarities of individual authors, are about the same as those of the younger student who is reading Cicero or Vergil. A book which treats adequately the grammar

of these two authors is, with slight additions, sufficient for the reading of college authors.

Of the passages quoted as examples three-fourths have been taken from what may be called school authors,—that is, from Caesar, Cicero, Vergil, Sallust, Nepos, and a very few from Ovid,—though not always from the works or parts of works which are usually read in school. The other examples, almost without exception, have been taken from works commonly read by college undergraduates.

It has been thought best to treat the formation of words under the various parts of speech, instead of treating the subject as a whole in one place. This has been done partly because this arrangement seems more logical, but especially in the hope that the younger student may find the subject less forbidding when presented in this way. The subject of versification has been treated briefly but, it is hoped, sufficiently for the reading of Vergil and Ovid. It has been thought unnecessary to include the meters of Horace and other college authors. Versification is not a part of the subject of Latin grammar, and modern editions of Latin texts almost invariably treat the meters used by their authors.

In the treatment of sounds and words the author has had the help of Professor R. W. Husband, and in the treatment of syntax that of Professor J. K. Lord, both of Dartmouth College, and wishes hereby to acknowledge his gratitude. He is indebted also to Dr. William Gallagher, Principal of Thayer Academy at South Braintree, Massachusetts, who has read the whole manuscript and has made many valuable criticisms. Thanks are due also to Harriet P. Fuller of the English High School, Providence, Rhode Island, and to Franklin A. Dakin of Haverford School, Haverford, Pennsylvania, for many useful suggestions.

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LATIN GRAMMAR

FIRST PART — SOUNDS

THE ALPHABET

1. The Latin alphabet was borrowed from the Chalcidian Greek colonies of southern Italy and adapted to the sounds of the Latin language. Only capital letters were used; small letters did not come into use till the end of the eighth century A.D.

2. In Cicero's time the alphabet consisted of twenty-one letters: —

letter	pronounced	letter	pronounced	letter	pronounced
A	<i>ah</i>	H	<i>ha</i>	P	<i>pay</i>
B	<i>bay</i>	I	<i>ee</i>	Q	<i>koo</i>
C	<i>kay</i>	K	<i>ka</i>	R	<i>air</i>
D	<i>day</i>	L	<i>el</i>	S	<i>es</i>
E	<i>eh</i>	M	<i>em</i>	T	<i>tay</i>
F	<i>ef</i>	N	<i>en</i>	V	<i>oo</i>
G	<i>gay</i>	O	<i>o</i>	X	<i>eex</i>

3. Besides these, **Y** and **Z** were used in Cicero's time and later, to transliterate Greek words, but were not generally included in the alphabet. **Y** represented the Greek *υ* and had the sound of the German *ü*, as in *Brüder*; **Z** was used to transliterate the Greek *ζ* and had the sound of the English *z*.

4. Long and short vowel sounds, though quite distinct, were regularly indicated by the same letter. But long vowels were sometimes distinguished in early Latin as follows: — **a**, **e**, and

u were doubled; **i** was written **ei** or a taller letter was used; sometimes a mark (*apex*) was put over a long vowel; a late form of this mark is the one now used to indicate a long vowel.

5. The letter **C** originally represented a **g** sound like the third letter of the Greek alphabet, and was retained for that purpose in the abbreviations **C.** (**Gāius**) and **Cn.** (**Gnaeus**). It gradually came to represent a **k** sound, supplanting the letter **K**, which was used generally in the earlier period, but in the classical period only occasionally in **Kaesō**, **Kalendae**, **Karthāgō**, and a few abbreviations. When the letter **C** had thus assumed a new function (this use was general by the beginning of the third century B.C.), a new letter was needed to represent the **g** sound; for this purpose **G** was formed from **C** and inserted in the alphabet in the place once held by **Z**, which had gone out of use.

6. **I** and **V** regularly represented both the vowel sounds (**sim**, **bonus**) and the semivowel or consonant sounds (**māior**, **volō**). The consonant **i** sound was, however, represented sometimes by a taller letter, sometimes by doubling (**Trōiia**). The differentiation of **U** and **V**, for vowel and consonant respectively, was not made till the tenth century A.D. The letter **J** was introduced in the seventeenth century, to indicate the consonant **i**.

In this book, according to the modern custom, **i** is used for both vowel and consonant, **u** for vowel **u**, and **v** for consonant **u**.

CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS

7. The vowels — **a**, **e**, **i**, **o**, **u**, and **y** — are classified as follows: — *open*, **a**; *medial*, **e** and **o**; *close*, **i**, **u**, and **y**. There is, however, variation within these classes; long **e** and **o**, for example, are closer than the corresponding short vowels.

8. The diphthongs are **ae**, **au**, **oe**, and **eu**; **eu** occurs in only a very few words. Besides these, the following are found in early Latin: — **ai**, **ei**, **oi**, and **ou**.

The combination *ui* occurs in *huic*, *cui*, and the interjection *hui*; some regard this as a diphthong, others believe that the *u* is a consonant.

9. Consonants are classified as follows: —

(a) *Sonant*: **b, d, g**, consonant **i, l, m, n, r, v, z**.

Surd: **c, f, h, k, p, q, s, t, x**.

Sonants are voiced, surds are not.

(b)

	Labial	Lingual or Dental	Palatal
<i>Mutes</i> { <i>Sonant</i>	b	d	g
{ <i>Surd</i>	p	t	c, k, q
<i>Nasals</i>	m	n	
<i>Liquids</i>		l, r	
<i>Spirants (Sibilants)</i>		s, z	
<i>Semivowels</i>	v		i (consonant)

Mutes are distinguished from the others in being mere explosives, incapable of prolongation.

x is a double consonant, equivalent to **cs**; **f** is a labio-dental spirant; **h** is a mere breathing; **c, g, k, q**, and **n** before **c, g, k, q**, and **x**, are sometimes called *gutturals*.

q is always, **g** and **s** are sometimes, followed by the consonant **u** sound, though it is the custom to write **u**, not **v**: *quis, anguis, suavis*.

PRONUNCIATION

10. The pronunciation of Latin is determined with approximate certainty from the detailed descriptions of Latin grammarians and occasional statements of other Latin writers; from Greek transliteration of Latin words; from Latin transliteration of foreign words, especially Greek; from variations in spelling; and from the development of the sounds in languages derived from Latin.

PRONUNCIATION OF VOWELS

11.

Long

Short

ā as in *father*a as in *along*ē " *they*e " *net*ī " *machine*i " *pin*ō " *no*o " *obey*ū " *rule*u " *put*

y is like German ü (as in *Brüder*) or French u.

These English equivalents are only approximate; all long vowel sounds in English except that of a as in *father* end in a vanishing sound which makes them somewhat diphthongal.

QUANTITY OF VOWELS

12. The sound of the long vowel is theoretically twice as long as that of the short. We know the length of a vowel in many cases from its value in poetry; as, for example, in the first line of the *Aeneid*, we may recognize from their position in the verse the value of the long and short vowels, as indicated: **armă vīrumquē cānō Trōiae quī primūs āb ōris.** But a *syllable* is long if its vowel is followed by two consonants, irrespective of the length of the vowel. In such cases the value of the vowel (called *hidden quantity*) may sometimes be learned from (a) statements of Roman grammarians; (b) inscriptions, in which long vowels are sometimes marked; (c) etymology; (d) compounds, in which long vowels are treated differently from short (cf. **adāctus** from **āctus**, **affectus** from **factus**); (e) transliteration into Greek; (f) treatment of the vowel in languages derived from Latin.

13. A vowel which represents a diphthong or is the result of contraction is long: as, **concīdō** from **caedō**; **nīl** from **nihil**.

A vowel is long before **nf** or **ns**, and probably before **nct** and **nx**: as, **infēlix**, **insānus**, **dēfūctus**, **coniūnx**.

14. A vowel is short before another vowel or **h**. There are the following exceptions:

(a) Numerous words in early Latin: *as*, *pīus*, *fūi*.

(b) In classical Latin:

1. *ā* in the old genitive ending of the first declension, *-āi*.

2. *ā*, *ē*, and *ō* in the genitive and vocative singular and nominative, dative, and ablative plural of nouns (usually proper names) ending in *-āius*, *-ēius*, or *-ōius*: *as*, *Gāi*, *Pompēi*, *Bōi*, *plēbēis*.

3. *ē* in the ending of the genitive and dative singular of the fifth declension, — always when *e* is preceded by *i*, rarely, in early Latin, when another letter precedes: *as*, *diēi*, but, with a few exceptions, *fidei*.

4. *ī* in the pronominal genitives *ūnius*, *tōtius*, etc. The dramatists regularly have *ī*; later, the vowel was commonly shortened.

5. *ī* in all forms of *fiō*, except when it is followed by *er*: *as*, *fiēbam*; but *fierem*.

6. *ī* in *dīus* (for *dīvus*).

7. Many Greek words: *as*, *Aenēās*, *āēr*, *Dīāna* (more often *Diāna*).

15. A vowel, unless it is the result of contraction, is short before *nt* or *nd*: *as*, *amant*, *amandus*; but *cōntiō* from *coventiō*, *vēndō* from *vēnumdō*.

16. A vowel is short before *ss*, except in contracted perfects: *as*, *fissus*, *fossus*, but *amāsse*; also before *st* in verbal endings, unless there is contraction: *as*, *fuisti*; but *amāstī*.

17. A vowel is short in monosyllables and final syllables ending in any consonant except *s*.

Exceptions: some monosyllables ending in *c*, *l*, *n*, and *r*: *as*, *hic* and the other adverbs of place, *sōl*, *nōn*, *cūr*; before *r* and *t*, an original long vowel is retained in early Latin and sometimes in poetry of the classical period: *as*, *patēr*, *ferār*, *vidēt*.

18. Before final *s* the quantity of the vowel varies: —

1. The vowel is long in final *as*, *es*, and *os*.

Exceptions: *anas*, *duck*; *as*, *copper*; *es* in the nominative singular of some dental stems which have a short vowel in the other cases: *as*, *mīles*; *es* (from *esse*); *penes*; *os*, *bone*; *compos*; *impos*.

2. The vowel is short in final *is* and *us*.

Exceptions: *is* in plural case-endings; in the second person singular of the perfect subjunctive active (rarely *-is*, *as*, on the other hand, *-is*

occurs rarely in the future perfect); in the second person singular of the present indicative active of the fourth conjugation and of some irregular verbs: *as, is, fis, vis*; in the second person singular of the present subjunctive active of some irregular verbs: *as, sis, velis*; and in *vis, force, Quiris, Samnis*, and sometimes *sanguis* and *pulvis*. *ūs* in the genitive singular and the nominative and accusative plural of the fourth declension; in the nominative singular of third declension nouns having *ū* in the other cases, e.g. *virtūs, tellūs*.

19. In monosyllables and final syllables ending in a vowel:

(a) final *i* is long;

Exceptions: *nisi, quasi, sicuti*, and, usually, *mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi*.

(b) final *o* is long;

Exceptions: *cedo* (imperative), *cito, duo, ego, modo*, and, rarely, the first person singular of verbs. Beginning with Ovid, the short vowel becomes increasingly common in the nominative singular of the third declension (as in *virgo*), in verb-forms, and in some other words: as, *ergo, ilico, immo, octo, quando*.

(c) final *u* is long;

(d) final *a* is short;

Exceptions: the ablative singular of the first declension; the imperative of the first conjugation; and most uninflected words: as, *frustrā, trigintā*.

(e) final *e* is short;

Exceptions: all monosyllables except enclitics; the ablative singular of the fifth declension; the second person singular of the present imperative active of the second conjugation; adverbs derived from adjectives of the first and second declensions: as, *longē, rēctē* (but short in *bene, male, inferne, superne*).

PRONUNCIATION OF DIPHTHONGS

20. In diphthongs both vowels are pronounced in quick succession by one effort.

ae had the sound of short *a* followed by that of short *e*. It is the common practice, however, to pronounce *ae* and the earlier *ai* in the same way, like *ai* in *aisle*.

oe had the sound of short **o** followed by that of short **e**, but both **oe** and the earlier **oi** are pronounced like **oi** in *toil*.

au is like **ou** in *our*.

eu is short **e** followed by short **u**.

The early diphthongs **ei** and **ou** were originally pronounced respectively like **ay** in *hay* and **o** in *no*, where there is a vanishing sound of **u**. But by the middle of the second century B.C. **ei** had come to be pronounced like **i** in *machine*, **ou** like **u** in *rule*.

Diphthongs are always long; except that **prae** in composition is sometimes shortened before a vowel: as, **praeunte**, *Aen.* 5, 186.

PRONUNCIATION OF CONSONANTS

21. Consonants are pronounced in general as in English, but the following points should be noted:—

b before **s** or **t** has the sound of **p**, as in *urbs*, *obtineō*.

c always has the sound of English **k**.

g always has the sound of **g** in *get*.

h was originally the same as in English, but was often omitted in pronunciation.

i as a consonant is like **y** in *yes*.

m before another consonant and when final was pronounced without closing the lips like the French nasalized **n**.

n is usually like the English **n**. But before **c**, **g**, **q**, and **x** it has a guttural sound like **ng** in *sing*. Before **f**, consonant **i**, **s**, and **v**, except in the prefixes **con-** and **in-**, it is silent, the preceding vowel being lengthened, if short, and nasalized: as, **cō(n)sul**, **mē(n)sis**. As a final consonant it is weak, except in monosyllables.

r is trilled as in French.

s is always unvoiced, like **s** in *soft*, never like **ś** in *his*. In early Latin final **s** after a short vowel and before a consonant was only slightly sounded or disappeared entirely.

v is like **w** preceded by **ū**: e.g. *vēni* = *ūwēni*.

The Greek aspirates, **θ**, **φ**, and **χ**, were always pronounced like **t**, **p**, and **k**. Before 145 B.C. they were represented by **t**, **p**, and **c**; after that, by **th**, **ph**, and **ch**, but the pronunciation remained the same.

Doubled consonants were not pronounced as in English like single consonants, but with a prolongation of the sound of the single consonant. In writing, consonants were not doubled till after 200 B.C.

SYLLABLES

22. A word has as many syllables as it has vowels or diphthongs.

The syllable before the last is the *penult*; the one before that is the *antepenult*.

A syllable ending in a vowel or diphthong is called *open*; others are called *closed*.

In the division of words into syllables a single consonant between two vowels goes with the following vowel: **pa-ter**, **fe-rō**.

In a group of two or more consonants the division is made after the first, except that a mute and a liquid go with the following vowel: **dic-tus**, **fal-lō**, **mōn-strum**, **ā-cris**. In the case of a mute and a liquid, however, if in poetry a long syllable is needed, the mute may be sounded with the preceding vowel.

In the treatment of the double consonant **x**, practice varies; some write **dī-xit**, others **dīx-it**; the actual pronunciation was **dīc-sit**.

The combination **qu** is treated as a single consonant: **a-qua**.

Prepositional compounds are separated into their component parts: as, **ad-est**, **ab-rumpō**, **con-cipiō**.

LENGTH OF SYLLABLES

23. A syllable is long if it contains a long vowel or a diphthong, or if its vowel is followed by two consonants (except a mute and a liquid, see **24**), by the double consonant **x**, or by **z** (which is treated, according to the Greek custom, as a double

consonant). In the latter case the syllable is said to be long *by position*. One of the two consonants may be at the beginning of the next word. **h** does not count as a consonant; **qu** has the value of only one consonant: thus, in **adhibeō** and **equus** the first syllables are short. In early Latin final **s** on account of its faint sound does not always make a syllable long by position.

24. A syllable containing a short vowel before a mute followed by **l** or **r** is regularly short; in verse, however, it is sometimes treated as long. In compounds, when the prefix ends in a mute and the second part begins with **l** or **r**, the prefix is always long.

25. A syllable is long if it contains the vowel **a**, **e**, **o**, or **u** followed by consonant **i**: as, **māior**, **ēius**, **Trōia**, **cūius**. In these words the first syllable is really a diphthong formed by the vowel and a transitional sound (vowel **i**), so that the actual sound would be represented by **maiior**, etc.

26. In compounds of **iaciō** (spelled **adiciō**, **iniciō**, etc.) the consonant **i** of the simple verb was probably pronounced, though not written. Therefore the first syllable, if it ends with a consonant, is long by position. In **rēiciō** the first syllable is long for the same reason as in **māior**, etc.

ACCENT

27. While the nature of Latin accent is disputed, it was probably like the English, a stress accent. The difference in stress between accented and unaccented syllables was, however, not so great as in English.

In the earliest period all Latin words had *recessive* accent, i.e. were accented on the first syllable. As late as the time of Plautus words of four syllables of which the first three were short were still accented on the first syllable: as, **fācilius**, **mūlierem**. This recessive accent was the cause of numerous phonetic changes, being responsible for the loss or weakening of unaccented syllables: as, **posse** from **pótesse**.

28. In classical Latin, in words of two syllables, the accent is on the first.

But when a final syllable following a long penult has disappeared or has been contracted, the accent is on the last syllable:—

(a) in compounds of **dīc** and **dūc**: as, **addūc** for **addūce**.

(b) in words compounded with the abbreviated enclitics, **-ce** and **-ne**: as, **illic** for **illīce**, **tantōn** for **tantōne**, **vidēn** for **vidēsne**.

(c) in nominatives of adjectives ending in **-ās** and **-īs**, for **-ātis** and **-ītis**: as, **nostrās**, **primās**, **Quirīs**, **Samnīs**.

(d) in perfects like **audīt**, for **audīvit**.

29. In words of more than two syllables the accent is regularly on the penult, if the penult is long; otherwise, on the antepenult.

According to the Roman grammarians (their statement is now questioned), in the contracted genitive and vocative of nouns in **-ius** and **-ium**, the penult is accented even if it is short: as, **Vergīlī**, **cōnsīlī**, **impēri**.

When **faciō** is compounded with another verb, the accent of **faciō** remains unchanged: as, **calefācit**, **patefācis**.

Nominatives of proper nouns and adjectives ending in **-ās** for **-ātis** have the accent on the last syllable: as, **Maccēnās**, **Arpīnās**.

In words of four or more syllables there is a secondary accent, — on the second syllable before the chief accent, if that is long or is the first syllable of the word; otherwise, on the third: as, **arcēssivērunt**, **hābuērunt**, **hābuerāmus**.

ENCLITICS

30. Enclitics are words which have no accent, being joined in pronunciation and writing with the preceding word. They are

(a) **-ce**, **-ne**, **-que**, **-ve**.

(b) **-dem**, **-dum**, **-inde**, **-met**, **-nam**, **-per**, **-pte**, **-quidem**,

-tum: as in **ibidem** (**ibidem** in early Latin), **âgedum**, **deinde**, **égomet**, **úbinam** (**ubínam** rarely), **parúmpet**, **suôpte**, **síquidem**, **etiámtum**.

(c) verb-forms: e.g. **licet** in **vidêlicet**, **îlicet**, and **scîlicet**; **libet** in **quîlibet**; **vis** in **quâmvîs**; forms of **esse** in compound tenses. After a vowel or **m**, the vowel of **es** and **est** was not pronounced and is often omitted in writing: as, **audîta es**, pronounced **audîtas**; **audîtum est**, pronounced **audîtumst**. The verb was combined with a noun or an adjective in the same way: as, **epístulast**, **iudíciumst**, **bónast**.

In the early writers, if **es** or **est** follows a word ending in **s** preceded by a vowel (usually short), not only is **e** of the verb lost, but also **s** of the previous word: as, **tû servos**, for **tû servos es**; **bonust**, for **bonus est**; **similist**, for **similis est**.

(d) the indefinite pronouns **quis** and **quî**: as, **síquis**.

(e) the preposition **cum** following its case: as, **nôbîscum**.

Besides these, other words, if unemphatic, are sometimes enclitics; e.g. personal and demonstrative pronouns and possessive adjectives (as **dic-mihi**, pronounced **dîcmihi**); even nouns (cf. **quômodo**, **quârê**, **postrîdiê**).

31. As an enclitic was a part of the word to which it was attached, the combination was regularly accented as one word. The Roman grammarians assert, however, that the syllable before **-ce**, **-ne**, **-que**, and **-ve** was accented even if short: as, **magnâque**, **periculâque**; and though this statement has been questioned, the evidence against it seems insufficient.

This principle does not apply to most of those combinations in which **-que** has lost its proper meaning, *and*; thus, **dênique**, **úndique**, **útique**, **ítaque**, (*therefore*); but, **utrâque** and **plerâque**, probably on account of the influence of their other cases.

PHONETIC CHANGES

32. The form of many words in classical Latin is due to certain changes of sound based upon well-established principles. Some of these changes occurred in the pre-literary period, when all words were accented on the first syllable.

WEAKENING IN UNACCENTED SYLLABLES

33. The vowel of an unaccented syllable, either medial or final, was often weakened, especially in syllables immediately preceded by the chief accent.

Weakening of Vowels in Medial Syllables

34. Medial *a* before a single consonant, except *p* or *r*, and before *ng* becomes first *e* and, later, *i*: as, *cadō*, *accedō* (in Ennius), *accidō*; *faciō*, *cōnficiō*; *datus*, *redditus*; *tangō*, *attingō*.

Medial *a* before *p* becomes *u*, when the preceding syllable contains *o* or *u*: as, *capiō*, *occupō*.

Medial *a* before two consonants and before *r* becomes *e*: as, *capiō*, *acceptus*; *dare*, *reddere*. But before *l* and any other consonant except *l*, it becomes *u*: as, *saliō*, *insultus*; *calcō*, *inculcō*.

35. Medial *e* before any single consonant except *r* becomes *i*; otherwise, it usually remains unchanged: as, *legō*, *colligō*; *ferō*, *cōnferō*; *sedeō*, *obsessus*. Before a labial the weakened sound varies between *i* and *u*: as, *monimentum* or *monumentum*.

36. Medial *o* before a single consonant except *l* sometimes becomes *i* (or *e*, if preceded by *i*): as, *ilicō* (from *in locō*); *bonitas* (from *bono-*); *societās* (from *socio-*): *maximus* (from *maxomos*), with an intervening stage, *maxumus*.

Medial *o* before two consonants, and, unless preceded by a vowel, before *l*, becomes *u*: as, *dīcuntur* (for *dīcontur*); *pōculum* (for *pōcolum*); *filiolus* (from *filio-*). The same change occurs in initial syllables when *o* is followed by *l* and another consonant, or by *nc*, *ngu*, or *mb*: as *multa* (for *molta*); *hunc* (for *honc*); *unguis* (cf. *ὄνυξ*); *umbilicus* (cf. *ὀμφαλός*).

37. Medial *u* before a single consonant usually becomes *i*: as, *fructibus* (from *fructu-*); but *acubus* (from *acu-*). So, in an initial syllable, *lubet* becomes *libet*.

38. Medial *av* and *ov* become *u*: as, *lavō*, *ēluō*; *novus*, *dēnuō*.

Weakening of Vowels in Final Syllables

39. Final *i* and *o* become *e*: as, *mare* (from *mari*); *ante* (from *anti*); *iste* (from *isto*).

a in final closed syllables becomes *e*: as, *auceps* (from *cap-*); *artifex* (from *fac-*).

e in final closed syllables before s or t becomes i: as; *dicis*, *dīcit* (for *dīces*, *dīcet*); *virtūtis* (for *virtūtes*).

o in final closed syllables, unless preceded by u or v, becomes u: as, *filius*, *filium* (for *filios*, *filiom*); *dōnum* (for *dōnom*); *genus* (for *genos*); *dicunt* (for *dīcont*); but, *equos*, *relinquont*, *extinguont*, *servos*. In the time of Augustus words ending with -quo- and -guo- underwent a change; *equos*, *relinquont*, and *extinguont* became *ecus*, *relincunt*, and *extingunt*. Later the forms *equus*, *relinquunt*, and *extinguunt* came into use; and also such forms as *servus*. The conjunction *cum* (from earlier *quom*) remained unchanged; the form *quum* did not come into use till the sixth century A.D.

Weakening of Diphthongs

40. In initial syllables *ai* becomes *ae*: as, *caedō* (for *caidō*); *aedēs* (for *aidēs*). *ei* becomes *ī*: as, *dīcō* (for *deicō*). *oi* becomes *oe* or *ū* or *ī*: as, *poena* (for *poina*); *pūniō* (for *poiniō*); *vidit* (for *voidit*). *au* remains unchanged. *eu* and *ou* become *ū*: as, *dūcō* (for *deucō*); *iussī* (for *iūsī*, earlier *ioussī*).

In medial and final syllables *ai*, *ei*, and *oi* become *ī*: as, *concidō* (for *concaidō*); *indīcō* (for *indeicō*); *servī* (for *servoi*). *au* and *eu* become *ū*: as, *conclūdō* (from *claudō*); *condūcō* (from *deucō*).

Examples of *eu* occur in classical Latin, but they are either interjections (as, *eu*, *heu*) or new formations (as, *neuter*).

Loss of Vowel

41. A short vowel in an unaccented syllable is sometimes lost. If the vowel is medial, the loss is called *syncope*; if final, it is called *apocope*.

Examples of *syncope*: *aetās* (*aevitās*), *pergō* (*perregō*), *prūdēns* (*providēns*), *rettuli* (*retetuli*), *valdē* (*validē*).

If, through the loss of a vowel, l or r would stand between two consonants or would be final and preceded by a consonant, it becomes syllabic, l being represented by *ul*, r by *er*: *difficulter* (from *difficilter*, *difficlter*), *ager* (from *agros*, *agrs*, *agers*).

Examples of *apocope*: *ab* (*ἀπό*), *quīn* (*quīne*), *dīc* (*dīce*), *nec* (*neque*), *ac* (*atque*), *animal* (*animāle*).

COMBINATION OF VOWELS

42. If, in the formation of words by composition or through the loss of an intervening consonant, two vowels come together, they are

sometimes allowed to remain (*hiatus*), but more often are contracted into one: *coēgī*, *dēeram*; *nēmō* (*nē-hemō*), *praetor* (*prai-itor*), *cōgō* (*co-agō*), *prōmō* (*pro-emō*), *dēgō* (*dē-agō*), *amō* (*amā-ō*), *amēs* (*amā-ēs*). Rarely they are combined into a diphthong or one is dropped: *coetus* (*co-itus*), *nūllus* (*nē-ūllus*).

IAMBIC SHORTENING

43. In iambic words (˘ –) the fact that the accent was on the first syllable tended to weaken the second, and many long vowels thus became short. So the final *ā* of the first declension and of neuter plurals of the second declension became *ă* in iambic words and from these the usage was extended to all. The short final *o* of verb-forms arose in the same way. Other examples are *homo*, *bene*, *male*, *cito*, *modo*.

VOWEL GRADATION

44. The Indo-European language from which Latin is derived had a system of vowel variation in related words, — changes of quantity or of vowel due to the position of the accent. This system is called Ablaut. In Latin such variation occurs, but a regular and complete system cannot be recognized. The lack of such a system is due to the wide and levelling influence of analogy, to the fact that many diphthongs became long vowels, and to the development of sonant liquids and nasals; for example, *l* sometimes became *ol* and later, usually, *ul*; *m* and *n* sometimes became *em* and *en*. The following examples will illustrate Ablaut in Latin:—*dāre*, *dōnum*; *tēgula*, *tēgō*, *tōga*; *fīdō*, *foedus* (for *foidus*), *fīdēs*; *sēdēs*, *sēdeō*, *sōdālis*, *sīdō* (for *sī-sd-ō*).

CHANGES OF SINGLE CONSONANTS

45. Final *d* after a long vowel disappears. This change affects all ablatives singular of the first and second declensions and of consonant stems of the third declension, and some adverbs and prepositions: as, *pugnā* (for *pugnād*); *servō* (for *servōd*); *aere* (for *aerid*); *mē*, *tē*, *sē* (for *mēd*, *tēd*, *sēd*); also *retrō* (for *retrōd*); *suprā* (for *suprād*); also future imperatives: as, *estō* (for *estōd*), *cūrō* (for *cūrōd*).

46. *s* between vowels becomes *r*; the process is called *rhotacism*: *erō* (stem, *es-*), *gerō* (cf. *gessi, gestus*), *Larēs* (for *Lasēs*), *portārum* (for *portāsom*). If *s* appears between vowels in classical Latin, it represents usually an earlier *ss*: *mīsi* (for *missi*), *causa* (for *caussa*). There are a few exceptions to the general rule; e.g. *miser, caesaries*, in which *s* was retained perhaps to avoid repetition of the *r* sound. Most of the other exceptions are foreign words. In nominatives like *honor* (for *honōs*) *r* is due to imitation of the other cases, where the principle of rhotacism was properly applied.

47. *v* often disappears between vowels: *iūnior* (for *iuvenior*), *cōntiō* (for *coventiō*), *nōlō* (for *nēvolō*), *dītiōr* (for *dīvitiōr*), *amāsse* (for *amāvisse*).

CHANGES IN CONSONANT GROUPS

48. The pronunciation of consonant groups was made easier by (a) *assimilation*, (b) *loss of one consonant*, (c) *development of a vowel between the consonants*.

49. (a) *Assimilation* may be *complete* or *partial*, i.e. one consonant may be made the same as the other (the first is usually assimilated to the second), or one may be so altered as to employ the same vocal organs as the other.

Examples of complete assimilation: — *occurrō* (*obcurrō*), *accurrō* (*adcurrō*), *sella* (*sed-la*), *siccus* (*sit-cus*), *summus* (*sup-mus*), *concussī* (*concut-sī*), *differō* (*dis-ferō*), *immortālis* (*in-mortālis*), *ācerimus* (*ācersi-mus*).

Examples of partial assimilation: — *rēctus* (*rēg-tus*; the first mute becomes unvoiced), *scripsī* (*scrib-sī*); the prepositions *ob*, *ab*, *sub*, originally *op*, *ap*, *sup*, owe their form to the fact that they were often used before voiced consonants; *imbellis* (*in-bellis*), *imperitus* (*in-peritus*), *tantus* (from *tam*), *somnus* (for *sop-nus*).

50. (b) A consonant may disappear at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of a word: *as*, *lātus* (*tlātus* from *tollō*), *Iūpiter* (*Diūpiter*), *nōscō* (*gnōscō*), *nātus* (*gnātus*), *locus* (*stlocus*); *suscipiō* (*subscipiō*), *ostendō* (*obstendō*), *sescentī* (*sexcentī*), *quintus* (*quinctus*), *sparsi* (*spargsi*), *cognōscō* (*congñōscō*), *idem* (*isdem*), *ultus* (*ulctus*), *ipse* (*ispse*); *es* (*ess*), *ter* (*terr*), *hoc* (*hocc*). No word ends in a doubled consonant.

51. (c) A vowel is sometimes developed in consonant groups, especially those containing a liquid: *pōculum* (*pōclum*), *mina* (*mna*).

SECOND PART — WORDS

FORMATION OF WORDS

52. A Root is that part of a word which contains the fundamental meaning. With few exceptions this element is not and never was an actual word and exists only as a device for the convenience of grammatical statement. A root is usually common to several or many words in Latin and often to words in other languages, especially Greek or the Germanic languages. On account of phonetic changes the Latin form of the root often differs somewhat from the form which was originally common to the various languages of the group.

Nearly all roots are of such a nature that their meaning may be expressed in the form of a noun or a verb. A very few appear only in the form of pronouns. A root ending in a vowel is called a vowel root; one ending in a consonant is called a consonant root. A root sometimes appears in different forms: as, *fid-*, *fid-*, *foed-*, in *fidus*, *fidēs*, *foedus*. Roots are sometimes indicated by the sign √.

53. The Stem of a word is the part which contains the fundamental meaning of that word as a part of speech. The stem is sometimes the same as the root. More often it is formed from a root by the addition of a suffix. The root vowel is often lengthened or changed: as, *rēx*, *king*, √ *reg*; *toga*, *toga*, √ *teg*. Stems formed directly from a root or from a verb-stem are called Primary. Stems formed from noun-stems or adjective-stems are called Secondary or Denominative. Thus *victor*, √ *vic*, is a Primary Derivative; *victōria*, formed from *victor*, is a Secondary Derivative.

In the combination of the stem and the suffix the usual phonetic changes occur; i.e. a final vowel of a stem disappears before a suffix beginning

with a vowel; a final short vowel of a stem is weakened before a suffix beginning with a consonant; a final consonant of a stem is liable to change or loss before a suffix beginning with a consonant.

INFLECTION

54. Latin is an inflected language; i.e. a word may appear in various forms, which have various meanings or grammatical relations. This variety is secured usually by terminations attached to the stem, sometimes by changes of the stem itself.

Pronouns (except personal pronouns) and adjectives (including participles) are inflected to denote Gender, Number, and Case; nouns and personal pronouns are inflected to denote Number and Case. This is called Declension.

Verbs are inflected to denote Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person. This is called Conjugation.

The comparison of adjectives is another form of inflection.

55. The following are not inflected: adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. Adverbs, however, are compared, and comparison may be properly regarded as a form of inflection. These parts of speech are called Particles. The term Particle is, however, sometimes restricted to a somewhat indefinite list of monosyllables, like **an**, **-ne**, **nē**, **nōn**, **num**, and **sī**.

GENDER

56. There are three genders, — Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter. In many nouns the gender is determined by sex, in others it is purely grammatical.

GENERAL RULES OF GENDER

57. Names of *males* and of *rivers*, *winds*, *months*, and *mountains* are masculine: as, **pater**, *father*; **Tiberis**, *Tiber*; **auster**, *south wind*; **Aprilis**, *April*; **Apenninus**, *Apennines*.

But names of rivers ending in *a* are feminine: as, **Allia**, **Albula**; also the Greek names **Lēthē** and **Styx**. Some names of mountains are feminine: as, **Alpēs**; also Greek names ending in *a* or *ē*: as, **Aetna**, **Rhodopē**; a few are neuter: as, **Sōractē**.

The names of months are really adjectives, agreeing with the masculine noun, **mēnsis**.

58. Names of *females* and of *countries, cities, islands, trees, plants*, and most *abstract qualities* are feminine: as, **māter**, *mother*; **Ītalia**, *Italy*; **Rōma**, *Rome*; **Dēlos**, *Delos*; **ulmus**, *elm*; **rosa**, *rose*; **virtūs**, *manliness*.

But some names of countries and towns are masculine: as, **Pontus**, **Sulmō**, **Gabīi**, and other plurals in *-ī*; some are neuter: as, **Latium**, **Tarentum**, **Leuctra**. Some names of trees and plants are masculine: as, **oleaster**, *wild olive*; **iuncus**, *rush*; **bōlētus**, *mushroom*; some are neuter: as, **acer**, *maple*; **apium**, *parsley*; **papāver**, *poppy*.

59. Letters of the alphabet, indeclinable nouns, infinitives used substantively, and quoted words, phrases, and clauses are neuter: as, **O Graecum**, *Greek O*; **fās**, *right*; **tōtum hoc philosophārī**, *all this philosophizing*; **istuc taceō**, *your "I'll say nothing."* But letters of the alphabet sometimes have a feminine adjective, agreeing with **littera** understood.

60. Some words are of common gender, being masculine or feminine according to the sex referred to: as, **parēns**, *parent*; **infāns**, *baby*; **bōs**, *ox* or *cow*.

61. Some words are of different gender in the two numbers: as, **locus**, *place*, plural **loca**; **rāstrum**, *rake*, plural **rāstrī**.

62. Some names of animals have one grammatical gender, though applicable to either sex: as, **ānser**, *goose* or *gander*, masculine; **aquila**, *eagle*, feminine; **vulpēs**, *fox*, feminine. These are called *epicenes*.

63. Collective nouns referring to persons have the gender regularly indicated by their endings: as, **exercitus**, *army*, masculine; **cohors**, *cohort*, and **cōpiae**, *troops*, feminine; **agmen**, *army*, and **concilium**, *council*, neuter.

NUMBER

64. There are two numbers, the *singular* and the *plural*.

CASE

65. There are five cases: —

Nominative: the case of the subject.

Genitive: possessive, or objective with *of*.

Dative: objective with *to* or *for*.

Accusative: objective with verb or preposition.

Ablative: objective with *from*, *with*, *by*, or *in*.

These definitions are not all-inclusive. The cases are treated in detail under the head of Syntax.

The Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative are called Oblique Cases.

66. Another case, the Vocative, the case of address, is in form not a distinct case except for masculine stems in *-o* and a few Greek nouns with other endings. Of all other nouns the nominative is used as the case of address.

67. Some names of towns and a few common nouns have another case, denoting the *place where*, called the Locative: as, **Rōmae**, at Rome; **rūrī**, in the country; **domī militiaeque**, at home and in the field.

NOUNS

FORMATION

68. Most nouns are *simple*; that is, they contain only one stem. Simple noun-stems are either Primary or Secondary.

69. Primary Stems are of two sorts: —

(a) Roots, with or without change of vowel: —

Root	Noun-Stem	Nominative
dūc-	duc-	dux
reg-	rēg-	rēx

These are found more commonly at the end of compounds: as, **armiger**, armor-bearer, **✓ reg-**: **tubicen**, trumpeter, **✓ can-**.

(b) Roots, with or without change of vowel, or verb-stems, with an added suffix. A great majority of primary stems are of this sort: —

Root or Verb-Stem	Noun-Stem	Nominative
fug-	fugā-	fuga
od-	odio-	odium
reg-	rēctōr-	rēctor
salūtā-	salūtātiōn-	salūtatiō

70. Secondary Stems are formed by the addition of a suffix to a noun-stem or an adjective-stem: —

First Stem	Secondary Stem	Nominative
cīvi-	cīvitāt-	cīvitās
aer-	aerārio-	aerārium
audāc-	audāciā-	audācia

71. Some suffixes have no definite meaning. Others have a meaning more or less definitely established. They are classed as Primary or Secondary, according as they are used in the formation of Primary or Secondary Derivatives. For convenience the form of the suffix which appears in the nominative singular is given, rather than that which appears in the stem.

Primary Suffixes

Agent

72. The suffix *-tor* (fem. *-trix*), added to verb-stems, forms nouns denoting the *agent* or *doer* of the action indicated by the verb. The verb-stem which appears in these words is that of the perfect passive participle, and the suffix *-tor* may undergo the same phonetic change as the participial ending *-tus*; that is, as *-tus* becomes *-sus*, *-tor* becomes *-sor*: —

vēnā-tor, <i>hunter</i> (vēnārī)	lēc-tor, <i>reader</i> (legere)
vēnā-trīx, <i>huntress</i>	pās-tor, <i>shepherd</i> (pāscere)
tōn-sor, <i>barber</i> (tondēre)	scrip-tor, <i>writer</i> (scribere)
tōns-trīx, <i>female barber</i>	peti-tor, <i>candidate</i> (petere)

Masculines in *-sor* have no corresponding feminine, except *tōnsor* (*tōnstrīx*) and *expulsor* (*expultrīx*), *expeller*.

-tor is sometimes added to noun-stems, thus becoming a secondary suffix: as, *gladiātor*, *gladiator*, from *gladius*, *sword* (this form of the

suffix, -ātor, being due to the frequency of agent formations from verbs of the first conjugation); iānitor, *doorkeeper*, from iānua, *door*; senātor, *senator*, from the stem sen-, *old age*; viātor, *traveller*, from via, *road*.

The suffix -ō is sometimes used to denote the agent: as, err-ō, *wanderer* (errāre); praec-ō, *herald* (for praevocō, from praevocāre).

The suffix -ter, originally denoting the agent, forms names of kindred: as, pa-ter, *father*; mā-ter, *mother*; frā-ter, *brother*.

Means or Instrument

73. The suffixes -ulum, -bulum, -culum, -brum, -crum, -trum, and -mentum, added to roots or verb-stems, form neuters, and the suffixes -ula, -bula, and -bra, added to roots or verb-stems, form feminines, denoting *means* or *instrument*: —

vinc-ulum, <i>chain</i> (vincire)	arā-trum, <i>plow</i> (arāre)
pā-bulum, <i>fodder</i> (pāscere)	ali-mentum, <i>nourishment</i> (alere)
vehi-culum, <i>wagon</i> (vehere)	rēg-ula, <i>rule</i> (regere)
dēlū-brum, <i>shrine</i> (dēluere)	fā-bula, <i>tale</i> (fāri)
sepul-crum, <i>tomb</i> (sepelire)	late-bra, <i>hiding-place</i> (latēre)

Nouns formed with these suffixes sometimes denote *place* rather than *means*: as, dēlūbrum, sepulcrum, latebra; cubiculum, *chamber* (cubāre); stabulum, *stall* (stāre); sometimes *result*, especially with -mentum: as, fragmentum, *fragment* (frangere); caementum, *cut stone* (caedere); simulācrum, *likeness* (simulāre).

-culum (earlier, -clum) and -crum are different forms of the same suffix; so, also, -bulum and -brum.

In candēlābrum, *candlestick*, from candēla, *candle*, the suffix is secondary.

Action

74. The suffixes -men, -mōnia, and -mōnium, added to roots or verb-stems, form nouns denoting *action* or, sometimes, the *result of action*: —

flū-men, <i>river</i> (flūere)	queri-mōnia, <i>complaint</i> (queri)
certā-men, <i>conflict</i> (certāre)	ali-mōnium, <i>nourishment</i> (alere)

-mentum is an extension of -men, and some words are formed with either suffix: as, fragmen, fragmentum, *fragment*; tegumen, tegumentum *covering*.

-mōnia and -mōnium (derived from -mōn, a form of -men) are used more commonly as secondary suffixes: as, sanctimōnia, *sanctity* (sanctus); mātirimōnium, *marriage* (mater).

Abstracts

75. The suffixes *-iō*, *-ium*, *-or*, *-tiō*, *-tūra*, and *-tus*, added to roots or verb-stems, form abstract nouns denoting *action* or *condition*, or concrete nouns denoting the *result of action*. If the suffix begins with *t* the same consonant changes occur as in the perfect passive participle; hence, *-tiō*, *-tūra*, and *-tus* may become respectively *-siō*, *-sūra*, and *-sus*: —

<i>leg-iō</i> , <i>legion</i> (<i>legere</i>)	<i>scrip-tūra</i> , <i>writing</i> (<i>scribere</i>)
<i>od-ium</i> , <i>hate</i> (<i>odisse</i>)	<i>tōn-sūra</i> , <i>shearing</i> (<i>tondere</i>)
<i>am-or</i> , <i>love</i> (<i>amāre</i>)	<i>can-tus</i> , <i>singing</i> (<i>canere</i>)
<i>āc-tiō</i> , <i>action</i> (<i>agere</i>)	<i>vī-sus</i> , <i>sight</i> (<i>videre</i>)
<i>mis-siō</i> , <i>dismissal</i> (<i>mittere</i>)	

These suffixes, especially *-ium*, are sometimes used in secondary formations: as, *mentiō*, *mention* (*mēns*); *hospitium*, *hospitality* (*hospes*); *litteratūra*, *literature* (*littera*).

The suffixes *-dō* and *-gō* form nouns denoting *action* or the *result of action*: —

<i>cupī-dō</i> , <i>desire</i> (<i>cupere</i>)	<i>orī-gō</i> , <i>beginning</i> (<i>orīri</i>)
<i>torpē-dō</i> , <i>numbness</i> (<i>torpēre</i>)	<i>vorā-gō</i> , <i>whirlpool</i> (<i>vorāre</i>)

These are used also in secondary formations: as, *dulcēdō*, *sweetness* (*dulcis*); *lumbāgō*, *lumbago* (*lumbus*).

Secondary Suffixes

Abstracts

76. The suffixes *-ia*, *-tās*, *-tia*, *-tiēs*, *-tūdō*, and *-tūs*, added usually to adjective-stems, and the suffix *-ium*, added usually to noun-stems, form abstract nouns denoting *quality*, *condition*, or *office*: —

<i>audāc-ia</i> , <i>boldness</i> (<i>audāx</i>)	<i>magni-tūdō</i> , <i>greatness</i> (<i>magnus</i>)
<i>liber-tās</i> , <i>freedom</i> (<i>liber</i>)	<i>senectūs</i> , <i>old age</i> (<i>senex</i>)
<i>trīsti-tia</i> , <i>sadness</i> (<i>trīstis</i>)	<i>sacerdōt-ium</i> , <i>priesthood</i> (<i>sacerdōs</i>)
<i>sēgni-tiēs</i> , <i>laziness</i> (<i>sēgnis</i>)	

A stem-vowel disappears before *-ia* and *-ium*: as, *superbia*, *pride* (*superbo-*); *collēgium*, *college* (*collēgā-*); it is changed to *i* before a suffix beginning with *t*: as, *magnitūdō*, *greatness* (*magno-*); *bonitās*, *goodness* (*bono-*); *o* following *i* is changed to *e* before *t*: as, *pietās*, *devotion* (*pio-*); *societās*, *alliance* (*socio-*).

Place

77. The suffixes *-ārium*, *-ētum* (or *-tum*), and *-īle* form neuters usually denoting *place*; *-ētum* denotes usually a place occupied by trees; *-īle*, a place for animals: —

aer-ārium, *treasury* (aes)
oliv-ētum, *olive-grove* (olīva)

virgul-tum, *thicket* (virgula)
ov-īle, *sheepfold* (ovīs)

Diminutives

78. The suffixes *-lus* (*-la*, *-lum*), *-ulus* (*-ula*, *-ulum*), *-culus* (*-cula*, *-culum*), added to noun-stems, form *diminutives*. These usually have the gender of the nouns from which they are derived. Diminutives are often used to express affection, admiration, pity, or contempt, the exact meaning being determined by the context: —

filio-lus, *little son* (filius)
filio-la, *little daughter* (filia)
rēg-ulus, *chieftain* (rēx)

oppid-ulum, *small town* (oppidum)
homun-culus, *dwarf* (homō)
munus-culum, *little gift* (munus)

79. Stems in *-eo-*, *-io-*, or *-vo-* take *-lus* (*-lum*); stems in *-eā-*, *-iā-*, or *-vā-* take *-la* preceded by *o*, which displaces the stem-vowel. Other stems in *-o-* and *-ā-* and stems ending in a mute take *-ulus* (*-ula*, *-ulum*). Stems in *-i-*, *-ē-*, *-u-*, *-l-*, *-n-*, *-r-*, and *-s-* usually take *-culus* (*-cula*, *-culum*).

The diminutive ending *-ellus* is due to phonetic changes: as, *agellus*, *little field* (*ager*); *fābella*, *short story* (*fābula*); so, also, *-ullus* in *homullus*, *little man* (*homō*).

Other diminutive endings appear in *cōdicilli*, *writing-tablets* (*cōdex*); *avunculus*, *uncle* (*avus*); *homunciō*, *little man* (*homō*).

Patronymics

80. The masculine suffixes *-adēs*, *-iadēs*, and *-idēs* and the feminine suffixes *-ēis*, *-ias*, and *-is*, form *patronymics*, denoting descent from a father or ancestor. They are nearly all Greek names and are used chiefly in poetry: —

Aene-adēs, *descendant of Aeneas*
Scipi-adēs, *a Scipio*
Atlant-iadēs, *descendant of Atlas*
Tyndar-idēs, *son of Tyndareus*

Nēr-ēis, *daughter of Nereus*
Thes-tias, *daughter of Thestius*
Tyndar-is, *daughter of Tyndareus*
Hesper-idēs (plu.), *daughters*
of Hesperus

The occasional ending *-idēs* is due to the union of *-idēs* with a preceding vowel: as, *Tydidēs*, son of *Tydeus*.

Other patronymic endings are *-inē* and *-ōnē*: as, *Nērīnē*, daughter of *Nereus*; *Ācrisīōnē*, daughter of *Acrisius*.

Other Secondary Suffixes

81. *-ārius*, denoting usually a person employed in some business or craft: as, *argentārius*, banker (*argentum*); *statuārius*, sculptor (*statua*).

-cus, *-icus* or *-īcus* (*-ca*, *-cum*): as, *būbulcus*, plowman (*būbulus*); *vīlicus*, overseer (*vīlla*); *amicus*, friend (*amāre*); *fabrica*, workshop (*faber*); *canticum*, song (*cantus*).

-īna, a primary or secondary suffix: as, *rapīna*, robbery (*rapere*); *rēgina*, queen (*rēx*); *medicīna*, medicine (*medicus*); *tōnstrīna*, barber's-shop (*tōnsor*).

Compound Nouns

82. In compound nouns the second member is usually the fundamental one, its meaning being more or less affected by the first. The second member is sometimes a root used as a stem, but more often either a root with a formative suffix or a noun-stem: as, *armiger*, armor-bearer, $\sqrt{\text{ger-}}$; *iūdex*, judge, $\sqrt{\text{dic-}}$; *interrēgnum*, *interregnum*.

The first part of a compound may be

83. (a) the stem of a noun or adjective. In compounds of this sort a vowel at the end of the first member usually disappears before a vowel at the beginning of the second: as, *magnanimus*, great-souled (*magno-*); sometimes even before a consonant: as, *manceps*, contractor (*manu-*). But a final vowel regularly appears as *i* before a consonant: as, *tubicen*, trumpeter (*tubā-*); *cornicen*, bugler (*cornu-*); *lātifundium*, large estate (*lāto-*). By analogy a final consonant generally assumes an *i* before a consonant: as, *frātrīcida*, fratricide (*frātr-*). A whole syllable sometimes disappears: as, *venēficus*, poisoner (*venēno-*). Stems in *-er-*, *-or-*, and *-ōr-* usually drop the suffix, substituting *i*: as, *opifex*, workman (*oper-*).

84. (b) a preposition or an adverb: as, *adventus*, arrival; *coniūnx*, spouse; *perfuga*, deserter. *Prōcōnsul* is the phrase *prō cōnsule* forced into the form and inflection of a noun.

85. (c) the genitive of a noun: as, *aquaeductus, aqueduct*; *senātuscōn-sultum, decree of the senate*; *aquae* and *senātūs* are genitives and remain unchanged, while the second member is declined. In *paterfamiliās, father of a family*, the second member is the genitive, and only the first is declined. Compounds of this sort are sometimes called *Syntactic Compounds*. Similar to these are *Iūpiter*; *Marspiter, father Mars*; *rēs publica, republic* (both parts declined); *iūs iurandum, oath* (both parts declined).

86. Names are sometimes given to compounds according to their meaning. *Determinatives* are those in which the second element is qualified by the first, as by an adjective or an adverb; and those in which the first member has a logical case-relation to the second: as, *agricola, farmer*; *armiger, armor-bearer*; *cornicen, bugler*. The former are sometimes called *Descriptive Compounds*, the latter *Objective* or *Dependent Compounds*.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS

87. Cases consist of the stem alone, sometimes with a final vowel shortened or lengthened or with the loss of a final consonant, or they consist of the stem with an added suffix. A final stem-vowel disappears before a vowel suffix or combines with it. The term *case-ending*, as used in the paradigms of this book, is applied to the characteristic endings of the cases in the several declensions; these are in some cases the final stem-vowel, in others a suffix, and in others a combination of the stem-vowel and a suffix.

General Rules of Declension

88. All masculine and feminine nominatives except stems in *-ā-*, *-ī-*, *-n-*, *-r-*, and *-s-* are formed by adding *s* to the stem.

In all neuters the nominative and accusative are alike, in both singular and plural. The plural always ends in *a*.

The accusative singular of all masculines and feminines ends in *m* with the stem-vowel shortened, if long; the accusative plural in *s* preceded by a long vowel.

The ablative singular of vowel stems is the stem with its final vowel lengthened, if short, except that in stems in *-i-* the

ablative often has **-ē** instead of **-ī**. The ablative singular of consonant-stems adds **e** to the stem.

The genitive plural is formed by adding **rum** to stems in **-ā-**, **-o-**, and **-ē-** (the **o** of **o**-stems being lengthened); **um** to stems in **-i-**, **-u-**, and consonant-stems.

The dative and ablative plural are always alike; stems in **-ā-** and **-o-** take **is**, which combines with the stem-vowel, becoming **īs**; others take **bus**, before which consonant-stems add **i**.

89. There are five declensions of nouns, distinguished by the final letter of the stem. It is the custom, however, to indicate the declension by the ending of the genitive singular.

Declension	Stem-ending	Gen. Sing. ending
I	-ā-	-ae
II	-o-	-ī
III	-i- or a consonant	-is
IV	-u-	-ūs
V	-ē-	-ēī

First Declension — ā-Stems

90. Example:

Singular			Case-endings
Nom.	mēnsa	<i>a (or the) table</i>	-a
Gen.	mēnsae	<i>a table's, of a table</i>	-ae
Dat.	mēnsae	<i>to or for a table</i>	-ae
Acc.	mēnsam	<i>a table</i>	-am
Abl.	mēnsā	<i>from, with, by, or on a table</i>	-ā

Plural			
Nom.	mēnsae	<i>tables, or the tables</i>	-ae
Gen.	mēnsārum	<i>tables', of tables</i>	-ārum
Dat.	mēnsīs	<i>to or for tables</i>	-īs
Acc.	mēnsās	<i>tables</i>	-ās
Abl.	mēnsīs	<i>from, with, by, or on tables</i>	-īs

91. The nominative singular is the stem with final vowel shortened. The stem-vowel is shortened also in the accusative singular. The case-endings are in general a combination of stem-vowel and suffix. The translations are intended only to suggest the most common uses.

Town names and a few common nouns have a *locative* in -ae: as, **Rōmae**, *at Rome*; **militiae**, *in service*.

Gender

92. Most nouns of the first declension are feminine. But names of males are masculine: as, **agricola**, *farmer*; **nauta**, *sailor*; **poēta**, *poet*; **Belgae**, *the Belgians*; also, **Hadria**, *the Adriatic*, and, rarely, **damma**, *deer*, and **talpa**, *mole*.

Case-Forms

93. An old genitive singular ending is preserved in **familiās**, *of the family*, often found in combination with **pater**, *father*, and **māter**, *mother*, and rarely with **filius**, *son*, and **filia**, *daughter*. An old genitive singular in -āi is found in poetry: as, **aulāi**, *of the hall*.

A genitive plural in -um, instead of -ārum, is sometimes found (usually in poetry) in compounds of -cola, *inhabiting*, and -gena, *born*, in Greek patronymics, and in names of peoples: as, **agricolum**, *of the farmers*; **Grauge-num**, *of Greek-born men*; **Aeneadum**, *of the descendants of Aeneas*; **Lapithum**, *of the Lapithae*; also in **amphora**, a liquid measure, and **drachma**, a Greek coin.

In words in -ia, -iis sometimes becomes -is: as, **taenīs**, *with fillets*; **grātis**, *for nothing*; this occurs regularly in nouns in -āia: as **Bāis**, *at Baiae*. The dative and ablative plural sometimes ends in -ābus; especially, **deābus**, *goddesses*, and **filiābus**, *daughters*; also, **duābus** and **ambābus** from **duae**, *two*, and **ambae**, *both*.

Greek Nouns

94. Greek *common nouns* regularly have Latin forms throughout: as, **poēta**, *poet*. Masculines sometimes have a nominative singular in -ēs, accusative in -ēn: as, **anagnōstēs**, *reader*, acc. **anagnōstēn**.

Greek *proper nouns* are declined as follows:—

Nom.	Aenēās	Anchīsēs	Circē
Gen.	Aenēae	Anchīsae	Circēs (-ae)
Dat.	Aenēae	Anchīsae	Circae
Acc.	Aenēān (-am)	Anchīsēn (-am)	Circēn (-am)
Abl.	Aenēā	Anchīsē (-ā)	Circē (-ā)
Voc.	Aenēā	Anchīsē (-ā, -a)	Circē (-a)

Some feminine nominatives end in -ā: as, *Phaedrā*.

Greek forms are not found in the plural.

Second Declension — o-Stems

95. Stems in -o- with the nominative in -us or -um: —

Examples:

amicus, M., *friend*

bellum, N., *war*

		Singular	
		Case-ending	Case-ending
Nom.	amicus	-us	bellum -um
Gen.	amicī	-ī	bellī -ī
Dat.	amicō	-ō	bellō -ō
Acc.	amicum	-um	bellum -um
Abl.	amicō	-ō	bellō -ō
		Plural	
Nom.	amicī	-ī	bella -a
Gen.	amicōrum	-ōrum	bellōrum -ōrum
Dat.	amicīs	-īs	bellīs -īs
Acc.	amicōs	-ōs	bella -a
Abl.	amicīs	-īs	bellīs -īs

Stems in -o- with the nominative in -us have a special form for the *vocative*, ending in e: as, **amīce**, **Marce**.

The original endings of the nominative and accusative singular of nouns in -us were -os and -om; the original ending of the nominative and accusative singular of nouns in -um was -om. For the treatment of these endings when preceded by u or v see 39.

96. Stems in -o- with the nominative in -er or -ir: —

Examples:

puer, M., *boy*
stem, **puero-**

ager, M., *field*
stem, **agro-**

vir, M., *man*
stem, **viro-**

		Singular	
Nom.	puer	ager	vir
Gen.	puerī	agrī	virī
Dat.	puerō	agrō	virō
Acc.	puerum	agrum	virum
Abl.	puerō	agrō	virō
		Plural	
Nom.	puerī	agrī	virī
Gen.	puerōrum	agrōrum	virōrum
Dat.	puerīs	agrīs	virīs
Acc.	puerōs	agrōs	virōs
Abl.	puerīs	agrīs	virīs

Stems in -o- of this class have no special vocative form; but the vocative **puere** occurs, as if from a nominative **puerus**.

97. If **e** is contained in the stem, it appears in all cases, as in **puer**; in this class are included **adulter**, *adulterer*; **Celtibēr** (gen. -**ērī**), *a Celtiberian*; **gener**, *son-in-law*; **Hibēr** (gen. -**ērī**), *a Spaniard*; **Liber**, *Bacchus*; **liberī**, *children*; **Mulciber**, *Vulcan*; **presbyter**, *elder*; **socer**, *father-in-law*; **vesper**, *evening*; and compounds of **fer** and **ger**: as, **signifer**, *standard-bearer*; **armiger**, *armor-bearer*.

If **e** is not contained in the stem, the nominative singular is formed by dropping **o** of the stem and inserting **e** before **r**, as in **ager**.

A few stems in -ro- are declined like **amicus**: as, **er**, *master*; **hesper**, *evening-star*; **num**, *number*; **umer**, *shoulder*; **taur**, *bull*; **uter**, *womb*.

98. Town names and a few common nouns have a *locative* in -**ī**: as, **Corinthī**, *at Corinth*; **domī**, *at home*; **humī**, *on the ground*.

Gender

99. Most nouns ending in **us** and **r** are masculine; those ending in **um** are neuter.

Exceptions:—

Nouns having meanings enumerated in 58 are feminine: as, *Aegyptus, Egypt; Corinthus, Corinth; Rhodus, Rhodes; ulmus, elm-tree*; some Greek nouns: as, *methodus, method; Arctos, the constellation of the Bear*; and the following:—*alvus, belly; carbasus, linen* (pl. *carbasa, sails*); *colus, distaff; humus, ground; vannus, winnowing-fan*.

The following are neuter:—*pelagus, sea; virus, poison; vulgus, the crowd*. The accusative of these nouns is the same as the nominative, except that an accusative *pelagum* is sometimes found. They do not occur in the plural, except that *pelagus*, which is a Greek word, sometimes has the accusative plural *pelagē*. These are really Heteroclitics, the nominative and accusative being third-declension forms.

Case-Forms

100. Nouns in **-ius** or **-ium**, until the Augustan period, have the genitive singular in **-ī**, not **-īi**: as, *filius, son*, gen. *filī*; *Vergilius*, gen. *Vergilī*; *ingenium, nature*, gen. *ingenī*. For the accent of these words see 29. The custom of writing **-īi** began to be common in the Augustan period. The ending **-ī** was retained longer for proper names, and gentile names almost always have the single **-ī**. Locatives always have **-ī**.

The vocative of proper names in **-ius** ends in **ī**: as, *Vergilī, Mercurī*; also the vocative of *filius, son; genius, good angel; volturius, vulture*. Proper names in **-ēius** have **-ēī**, or **-ēi** pronounced as one syllable: as, *Pompēius*, voc. *Pompēī* or *Pompēi*.

101. The nominative plural ended originally in **oi**, the dative and ablative plural in **ois**; these first became **ei** and **eis**, which are found rarely in the Ciceronian period; then **ī** and **is**.

102. Proper names in **-āius**, **-ēius**, and **-ōius** have the nominative plural in **-āī**, **-ēī**, and **-ōī**; the dative and ablative plural in **-āīs**, **-ēīs**, and **-ōīs**: as, *Gāī, Gāīs; Pompēī, Pompēīs; Bōī, Bōīs*.

103. The genitive plural sometimes ends in **um** (after **u** or **v**, in the earlier **om**) instead of **orum**. This is an earlier form, the later **-orum** being a mere imitation of the genitive plural of the first declension. The earlier form is used regularly in nouns denoting money or measure: as, *sēstertius*,

sesterce; *nummus*, *coin*; *iūgerum*, *acre*; and is often found in cardinal and distributive numerals and in some other words: as, *trecentī*, *three hundred*; *bīnī*, *two each*; *deus* and *dīvus*, *god*; *faber*, *mechanic*; *liberī*, *children*; *socius*, *ally*.

104. *Deus*, *god*, is thus declined in the plural: nom. *dei* (rare before Ovid), *diī* or *dī*; gen. *deōrum* or *deum*; dat. and abl. *deīs* (rare before Ovid), *diīs* or *dīs*; acc. *deōs*; *dī* and *diīs* were pronounced like *dī* and *dīs*. For the genitive plural, *dīvum* or *dīvom* (from the adjective *dīvus*) are often used. The singular is regular; the vocative singular is not used; in late Latin the nominative is used as a vocative.

Greek Nouns

105. Greek nouns of the second declension have regularly the Latin terminations. But masculines and feminines, especially proper names in poetry, often have *-os* in the nominative and *-on* in the accusative singular: as, *Dēlos*, *Dēlon*. Neuters often have *-on* in the nominative and accusative singular: as, *Īlion*.

Names in *-ōs*, like *Athōs*, *Androgeōs*, have the genitive in *-ō* or *-ī*, the accusative in *-ōn*, *-um*, or *-ō*.

For names in *-eus*, like *Orpheus*, see 125.

A genitive in *-ū* is found rarely: as, *Menandrū*. *Panthūs* has the vocative *Panthū*.

The plural of Greek nouns of the second declension is usually regular, but the nominative plural sometimes ends in *oe*: as, *Adelphoe*. The genitive plural sometimes ends in *ōn*: as, *Geōrgicōn*, *of the Georgics*.

Third Declension

Consonant Stems and i-Stems

A. CONSONANT STEMS

I. Mute Stems

106. Examples:

mīles, M., *soldier*
stem, **milit-**

rēx, M., *king*
stem, **rēg-**

prīnceps, M., *chief*
stem, **prīncip-**

Singular				Case-endings
Nom.	mīles	rēx	prīnceps	-s
Gen.	mīlitis	rēgis	prīncipis	-is
Dat.	mīlitī	rēgī	prīncipī	-ī
Acc.	mīlitem	rēgem	prīncipem	-em
Abl.	mīlite	rēge	prīncipe	-e

Plural				
Nom.	mīlitēs	rēgēs	prīncipēs	-ēs
Gen.	mīlitum	rēgum	prīncipum	-um
Dat.	mīlitibus	rēgibus	prīncipibus	-ibus
Acc.	mīlitēs	rēgēs	prīncipēs	-ēs
Abl.	mīlitibus	rēgibus	prīncipibus	-ibus

cor, N., *heart*
stem, **cord-**

caput, N., *head*
stem, **capit-**

poēma, N., *poem*
stem, **poēmat-**

Singular				Case-endings
Nom.	cor	caput	poēma	—
Gen.	cordis	capitis	poēmatis	-is
Dat.	cordī	capitī	poēmatī	-ī
Acc.	cor	caput	poēma	—
Abl.	corde	capite	poēmate	-e

Plural				
Nom.	corda	capita	poēmata	-a
Gen.	—	capitum	poēmatum	-um
Dat.	cordibus	capitibus	poēmatibus	-ibus
Acc.	corda	capita	poēmata	-a
Abl.	cordibus	capitibus	poēmatibus	-ibus

107. Masculine and feminine nouns with stems ending in a mute form the nominative by adding **s** to the stem.

A lingual **(t, d)** disappears before **s**: as, **mīles**; **nepōs** (stem, **nepōt-**), *grandson*; **custos** (stem, **custod-**), *guard*.

A palatal (**c, g**) combines with **s** to form **x**: as, **rēx**; **pāx** (stem, **pāc-**), *peace*.

In words of more than one syllable, an original **a** or **e** appearing as **e** in the nominative is regularly weakened to **i** in the other cases: as, **mīles**; **prīnceps**; **iūdex** (gen. **iūdicis**), *judge*. There are, however, exceptions to this rule: as, **seges** (gen. **segetis**), *crop*.

There is a change of **u** to **i** in **caput**; and of **ē** to **e** in **pēs** (gen. **pedis**), *foot*, and its compounds; **abiēs**, *fir*; **ariēs**, *ram*; and **pariēs**, *wall*. In **auceps**, *bird-catcher*, the genitive **aucupis** shows the true stem, the nominative being formed on the analogy of **prīnceps**, etc.

Supellēx, *furniture*, has the genitive **supellēctilis**, etc.

108. The only neuters with stems ending in a mute are **cor**; **caput**; **lac**, *milk*; and Greek words like **poēma**. In these the nominative singular is the stem without the final consonant. In Greek neuters a dative and ablative plural in **-īs** is often found, and sometimes a genitive plural in **-ōrum**: as, **poēmatīs**; **poēmatōrum**.

II. Liquid Stems

109. Examples:

cōnsul , M., <i>consul</i>	victor , M., <i>victor</i>	flōs , M., <i>flower</i>	pater , M., <i>father</i>
stem, cōnsul-	stem, victōr-	stem, flōr-	stem, patr-

Singular

Nom.	cōnsul	victor	flōs	pater
Gen.	cōnsulis	victōris	flōris	patris
Dat.	cōnsuli	victōrī	flōrī	patri
Acc.	cōnsulem	victōrem	flōrem	patrem
Abl.	cōnsule	victōre	flōre	patre

Plural

Nom.	cōnsulēs	victōrēs	flōrēs	patrēs
Gen.	cōnsulum	victōrum	flōrum	patrum
Dat.	cōnsulibus	victōribus	flōribus	patribus
Acc.	cōnsulēs	victōrēs	flōrēs	patrēs
Abl.	cōnsulibus	victōribus	flōribus	patribus

genus, N., race
stem, **gener-**

corpus, N., body
stem, **corpor-**

aequor, N., sea
stem, **aequor-**

		Singular	
Nom.	genus	corpus	aequor
Gen.	generis	corporis	aequoris
Dat.	generī	corporī	aequorī
Acc.	genus	corpus	aequor
Abl.	genere	corpore	aequore
		Plural	
Nom.	genera	corpora	aequora
Gen.	generum	corporum	aequorum
Dat.	generibus	corporibus	aequoribus
Acc.	genera	corpora	aequora
Abl.	generibus	corporibus	aequoribus

110. Most masculine and feminine nouns and many neuters, with stems ending in a liquid, have for the nominative the simple stem: as, **cōnsul**; **mulier**, *woman*; **vēr**, *spring*; **cadāver**, *dead body*; **fulgur**, *lightning*.

Stems in **-tr-** (originally **-ter-**) have the nominative in **-ter**: as, **pater**; **māter**, *mother*; **frāter**, *brother*; **accipiter**, *hawk*.

Stems in **-tōr-** and **-ōr-**, which are very numerous, have the nominative in **-tor** and **-or**: as, **victor**; **amor** (gen. **amōris**), *love*. On the other hand, in **sāl** (gen. **salis**), *salt*, and **lār** (gen. **laris**), *household god*, the vowel is long in the nominative singular and short in the other cases.

Four masculine stems in **-er-** have the nominative in **-is**: **cinis** (gen. **cineris**), *ashes*; **cucumis**, *cucumber*; **pulvis**, *dust*; **vōmis** (oftener **vōmer**), *plowshare*.

Many **r-**stems, masculine, feminine, and neuter, ended originally in **s**; hence the nominative **flōs**; **mōs**, *custom*; **Cerēs** (gen. **Cereris**); **aes**, *copper*; **crūs**, *leg.*; **iūs**, *right*; **ōs**, *face*; **rūs**, *country*. In such words **s** became **r** regularly between two vowels and

sometimes in the nominative singular: as, **arbor** (gen. **arboris**), *tree*; **honor** (gen. **honōris**), *honor*; but the earlier forms, **arbōs** and **honōs**, are sometimes found. **Vās**, *vessel*, retains **s** even between two vowels.

Most neuter stems in **-er-** and **-or-** (originally **-es-** and **-os-**) have the nominative in **-us**: as, **genus**, **corpus**. But some neuter stems in **-or-** have the nominative in **-ur**: as, **ebur**, *ivory*; **femur**, *thigh*; **iecur**, *liver*; **rōbur**, *oak*; **femur** has also the genitive **feminis** from an **n**-stem, and **iecur** (**iocur** in the Augustan period) has also the genitive **iocineris**.

Neuter stems in **-ll-**, **-rr-**, simplify **ll**, **rr**, to **l**, **r**, in the nominative: as, **mel** (gen. **mellis**), *honey*; **fār** (gen. **fārris**), *spelt*.

Iter (gen. **itineris**), *journey*, has the nominative formed on a different stem from that of the other cases.

III. Nasal Stems

111. Examples:

leō, *M.*, *lion*
stem, **leōn-**

virgō, *F.*, *maiden*
stem, **virgin-**

flūmen, *N.*, *river*
stem, **flūmin-**

Singular

Nom.	leō	virgō	flūmen
Gen.	leōnis	virginis	flūminis
Dat.	leōnī	virginī	flūminī
Acc.	leōnem	virginem	flūmen
Abl.	leōne	virgine	flūmine

Plural

Nom.	leōnēs	virginēs	flūmina
Gen.	leōnum	virginum	flūminum
Dat.	leōnibus	virginibus	flūminibus
Acc.	leōnēs	virginēs	flūmina
Abl.	leōnibus	virginibus	flūminibus

112. Stems in **-ōn-** have the nominative in **-ō**: as, **leō**; **Cicerō**; **legiō**, *legion*.

Stems in **-din-** and **-gin-** have the nominative in **-ō**, with the original short vowel of the stem lengthened: as, **virgō**; **ōrdō**, *rank*. In this class are included also **Apollō** (gen. **Apollinis**); **homō**, *man*; **nēmō**, *nobody*; **turbō**, *whirlwind*. Three nouns of this class have **ō** in all cases: — **harpagō** (gen. **-ōnis**), *grappling-hook*; **ligō**, *mattock*; **praedō**, *robber*.

Stems in **-in-** (not **-din-** or **-gin-**), including many neuters and a few masculines, have the nominative in **-en**: as; **flūmen**; **flāmen**, *M., priest*; **pecten**, *M., comb*; **tībīcen**, *M., flute-player*.

There is only one stem in **-m**, — **hiems** (gen. **hiemis**), *winter*.

Peculiar formations are **carō** (gen. **carnis**), *flesh*, and **sanguis** (gen. **sanguinis**), *blood*; also **canis** (gen. **canis**), *dog*, and **iuvenis** (gen. **iuvenis**), *young person*, with the nominative formed as if from an **i**-stem.

B. i-STEMS

I. Pure i-Stems

113. Examples:

nāvis , <i>F., boat</i>	auris , <i>F., ear</i>	nūbēs , <i>F., cloud</i>	imber , <i>M., rain</i>
stem, nāvi-	stem, auri-	stem, nūbi-	stem, imbri-

Singular

Nom.	nāvis	auris	nūbēs	imber
Gen.	nāvis	auris	nūbis	imbris
Dat.	nāvī	aurī	nūbī	imbri
Acc.	nāvim (-em)	aurem	nūbem	imbrem
Abl.	nāvī (-e)	aure	nūbe	imbri (-e)

Plural

Nom.	nāvēs	aurēs	nūbēs	imbres
Gen.	nāvium	aurium	nūbium	imbrium
Dat.	nāvibus	auribus	nūbibus	imbribus
Acc.	nāvis (-ēs)	auris (-ēs)	nūbis (-ēs)	imbris (-ēs)
Abl.	nāvibus	auribus	nūbibus	imbribus

mare, N., *sea* **sedīle**, N., *seat* **animal**, N., *animal* **calcar**, N., *spur*
 stem, **mari-** stem, **sedīli-** stem, **animālī-** stem, **calcārī-**

Singular

Nom.	mare	sedīle	animal	calcar
Gen.	maris	sedīlis	animālis	calcāris
Dat.	marī	sedīlī	animālī	calcārī
Acc.	mare	sedīle	animal	calcar
Abl.	marī	sedīlī	animālī	calcārī

Plural

Nom.	maria	sedīlia	animālia	calcāria
Gen.	—	sedīlium	animālium	calcārium
Dat.	—	sedīlibus	animālibus	calcāribus
Acc.	maria	sedīlia	animālia	calcāria
Abl.	maribus	sedīlibus	animālibus	calcāribus

Nouns of this class — masculine, feminine, and neuter — except neuters like **animal** and **calcar**, are *parisyllables*; i.e. they have the same number of syllables in the genitive as in the nominative.

114. The nominative singular of masculines and feminines is regularly formed by adding **s** to the stem. Many **i**-stems, however, have the nominative in **-ēs**, like **nūbēs**: *as*, **caedēs**, *bloodshed*; **mōlēs**, *pile*; **prōlēs**, *offspring*. Four stems in **-ri** have the nominative in **-er**; these are **imber**; *linter*, *boat*; **ūter**, *leather bag*; **venter**, *belly*.

115. Masculine and feminine **i**-stems properly have the accusative singular in **-im**, the ablative singular in **-ī**, the genitive plural in **-ium**, and the accusative plural in **-īs**. But the influence of consonant-stems was so strong that only in the genitive and accusative plural were these endings regularly preserved.

116. Names of *cities* and *rivers* have the accusative singular in **-im**; also the following: — **būris**, *plow-beam*; **rāvis**, *hoariness*; **tussis**, *cough*; **cucumis**, *cucumber*; **sitis**, *thirst*.

The following have the accusative singular in **-im** or **-em**:

clāvis , <i>key</i>	puppis , <i>stern</i>	sēmentis , <i>planting</i>
febris , <i>fever</i>	restis , <i>rope</i>	strigilis , <i>scraper</i>
messis , <i>crop</i>	secūris , <i>ax</i>	turris , <i>tower</i>
nāvis , <i>boat</i> .		

117. Nouns having the accusative singular in **-im** have the ablative singular exclusively in **-ī**; also **canālis**, *conduit*, and **secūris**, *ax*. The ablative in **-ī** is invariable also in neuters, except **baccar**, *a plant*, **iubar**, *radiance*, **rēte**, *net*, and names of places like **Praeneste** and **Sōracte**.

The ablative ends in **ī** or **e** in nouns which have the accusative in **-im** or **-em**, except **messis** (**-e**), **restis** (**-e**), and **secūris** (**-ī**); also in the following:—

amnis , <i>river</i>	finis , <i>end</i>	orbis , <i>circle</i>
avis , <i>bird</i>	fūstis , <i>club</i>	ovis , <i>sheep</i>
bilis , <i>bile</i>	ignis , <i>fire</i>	pelvis , <i>basin</i>
civis , <i>citizen</i>	imber , <i>shower</i>	unguis , <i>nail</i>
classis , <i>fleet</i>		

118. A nominative plural in **-īs**, formed in imitation of the accusative plural, is found rarely.

The following nouns have the genitive plural in **-um**, not **-ium**: **ambāges**, *circuit*; **senex**, *old man*; **volucris**, *bird*. Both endings occur in **apis**, *bee*; **caedēs**, *bloodshed*; **clādēs**, *disaster*; **mēnsis**, *month*; **sēdēs**, *seat*; **struēs**, *heap*; **subolēs**, *offspring*; **vātēs**, *prophet*.

The accusative plural in Cicero's time ends in either **īs** or **ēs**; after the middle of the first century A.D. **ēs** became the regular ending.

119. The nominative and accusative singular of neuters was originally the stem; but the final **i** was in classical Latin either changed to **e** or, if preceded by **āl** or **ār**, dropped, the preceding **ā** being shortened. There are some exceptions to the latter rule: as, **collāre**, *collar*, **nāvāle**, *dockyard*.

II. Mixed i-Stems.

120. Examples:

urbs, F., *city* **nox**, F., *night* **cliēns**, M., *client* **aetās**, F., *age*
 stem, **urb(i)-** stem, **noct(i)-** stem, **client(i)-** stem, **aetāt(i)-**

Singular

Nom.	urbs	nox	cliēns	aetās
Gen.	urbis	noctis	clientis	aetātis
Dat.	urbī	noctī	clientī	aetātī
Acc.	urbem	noctem	clientem	aetātem
Abl.	urbe	nocte	cliente	aetāte

Plural

Nom.	urbēs	noctēs	clientēs	aetātēs
Gen.	urbium	noctium	clientium	aetātum (or -ium)
Dat.	urbibus	noctibus	clientibus	aetātibus
Acc.	urbīs (-ēs)	noctīs (-ēs)	clientīs (-ēs)	aetātīs (-ēs)
Abl.	urbibus	noctibus	clientibus	aetātibus

These are consonant-stems which have assumed **i** forms in the plural. They are declined, therefore, like consonant-stems in the singular, like **i**-stems in the plural. Nouns of this class are *imparisyllabic*, having in the genitive one more syllable than in the nominative.

121. This class includes:

(a) Monosyllables in **-s** or **-x** preceded by a consonant: as, **ars**, *skill*; **arx**, *citadel*; **falx**, *sickle*; **opēs** (no nom. sing.; gen. plu. in **-um**), *means*; **pōns**, *bridge*; **stirps**, *stock*.

(b) The following monosyllables in **-s** or **-x** preceded by a vowel:—

ās , <i>as</i>	glīs , <i>dormouse</i>	nix , <i>snow</i>
dōs , <i>dowry</i>	līs , <i>strife</i>	nox , <i>night</i>
faucēs (plu.), <i>throat</i>	mās , <i>male</i>	strix , <i>screech-owl</i>
fraus , <i>fraud</i>	mūs , <i>mouse</i>	vīs , <i>force</i>

The nominative singular of *faucēs* is not found in classical Latin. The genitive plural of some of these words varies between *-ium* and *-um*.

(c) Polysyllables in *-ns* or *-rs*: as, *cohors*, *cohort*; *cliēns*, *client*; *parēns*, *parent*; *cliēns* and *parēns* have the genitive plural in *-ium* or *-um*.

(d) Nouns in *-ās* or *-īs*: as, *cīvitās* (*-ium* or *-um*), *state*; *optimātēs* (*-ium* or *-um*), *aristocrats*; *penātēs*, *household gods*; *Quirītēs*, *Roman citizens*; *Samnītēs*, *Samnites*.

C. IRREGULAR NOUNS

122. *bōs*, M. & F., *ox, cow* *sūs*, M. & F., *pig* *vīs*, F., *force*
Iuppiter, M., *Jupiter*

Singular

Nom.	<i>bōs</i>	<i>sūs</i>	<i>vīs</i>	<i>Iuppiter</i>
Gen.	<i>bovis</i>	<i>suīs</i>	<i>vīs</i> (rare)	<i>Iovis</i>
Dat.	<i>bovī</i>	<i>suī</i>	<i>vī</i> (rare)	<i>Iovī</i>
Acc.	<i>bovem</i>	<i>suem</i>	<i>vīm</i>	<i>Iovem</i>
Abl.	<i>bove</i>	<i>sue</i>	<i>vī</i>	<i>Iove</i>

Plural

Nom.	<i>bovēs</i>	<i>suēs</i>	<i>vīrēs</i>
Gen.	<i>boum</i>	<i>suum</i>	<i>vīrium</i>
Dat.	<i>būbus</i> (<i>bōbus</i>)	<i>suibus</i> (<i>sūbus</i>)	<i>vīribus</i>
Acc.	<i>bovēs</i>	<i>suēs</i>	<i>vīrēs</i> (<i>-īs</i>)
Abl.	<i>būbus</i> (<i>bōbus</i>)	<i>suibus</i> (<i>sūbus</i>)	<i>vīribus</i>

Like *sūs* is declined *grūs*, *crane* (dat. and abl. plur. only *gruibus*); these are survivals of a *ū*-declension. *Vīs* is a diphthongal stem (*vei-*) in the singular, an *s*-stem in the plural; hence the plural *vīrēs* (for *vīsēs*). *Iuppiter* (spelled in early Latin *Iūpiter*) was originally a vocative, formed by combination of the vocative *Ieu* (earlier *Diēu*) with the weakened form of *pater*, *father*. The oblique cases are from the same root. The archaic nominative, *Diēspiter*, comes from another form of the root, *Diēu*.

123. The following nouns are peculiar, having a nominative stem different from that of the other cases:—*carō* (gen. *carnis*), *flesh*; *iter* (gen. *itineris*), *journey*; *iecur* (gen. *iecoris*, *iecinoris*, *iocinoris*), *liver*; *nix* (gen. *nivis*), *snow*; *senex* (gen. *senis*), *old man*; *supellēx* (gen. *supellēctilis*), *furniture*.

The Locative Case

124. Town names and a few common nouns with consonant stems have a *locative* in *-ī*: as, *Carthāginī*, *at Carthage*; *rūrī*, *in the country*.

Greek Nouns

125. Greek nouns of the third declension often have Greek forms in the nominative and accusative, singular and plural; sometimes in the genitive singular. The Greek endings are usually these:—genitive singular, *-os*; accusative singular, *-a* or *-n*; nominative plural, *-ēs*; accusative plural, *-ās*; the stem is sometimes used as a vocative singular. Names in *-eus* usually have the forms of the second declension.

Examples:

hērōs, M., *hero*
stem, *hērō-*

lampas, F., *torch*
stem, *lampad-*

tigris, M. & F., *tiger*
stem { *tigrīd-*
tigrī-

Singular

Nom. *hērōs*
Gen. *hērōis*
Dat. *hērōī*
Acc. *hērōa*, *-em*
Abl. *hērōe*

lampas
lampados
lampadī
lampada
lampade

tigris
tigris, *-idos*
tigrī
tigrin, *-ida*
tigrī, *-ide*

Plural

Nom. *hērōes*
Gen. *hērōum*
Dat. *hērōibus*
Acc. *hērōas*
Abl. *hērōibus*

lampades
lampadum
lampadibus
lampadas
lampadibus

tigrēs
tigrīum
tigrībus
tigrīs, *-idas*
tigrībus

Proper Names

Nom.	Capys	Didō	Orpheus	Sōcratēs
Gen.	Capyos	Didōnis (Didūs)	Orpheī (-ōs)	Sōcratis (-ī)
Dat.	Capyī	Didōnī (Didō)	Orpheō (-ī)	Sōcratī
Acc.	Capyn	Didōnem (Didō)	Orpheum (-a)	Sōcratem (-ēn)
Abl.	Capye	Didōne (Didō)	Orpheō	Sōcrate
Voc.	Capy	Didō	Orpheu	Sōcratēs (-ē)

Paris has the accusative forms Paridem, Parim, and Parin.

Gender in the Third Declension

126. The most important classes and the principal exceptions are as follows:—

(a) Masculine:—

Nouns in **-er, -es, -ēs, -ex** (gen. **-icis**), **-ō** (gen. **-ōnis**), **-or**, and **-ōs**.

Exceptions:—

Feminine: *linter, mīter, mulier*; *merges, seges, teges*; *compēs, mercēs, quiēs, requiēs*; abstract and collective nouns in **-iō**; *soror, uxor*; *cōs, dōs*.
Neuter: *cadāver, iter, tūber, ūber, vēr*, and names of trees and plants in **-er**; *ador, aequor, cor, marmor*; *ōs*.

(b) Feminine:—

Nouns in **-ās** (parisyllabic), **-is, -ō** (gen. **-inis**), **-iō, -s** (preceded by a consonant), **-ūs**, and **-x**.

Exceptions:—

Masculine: nouns in **-nis**, and *anguis, axis, callis, canālis, cassēs* (plu.), *caulis, cinis, collis, corbis, cucumis, ēnsis, fascis, follis, fūstis, lapis, mēnsis, orbis, piscis, postis, pulvis, sanguis, sentēs* (plu.), *torquis, torris, unguis, vectis, vepris, vermis, vōmis*; *Apollō, cardō, cupidō* (sometimes masc.), *homō, margō* (masc. and fem.), *nēmō, ōrdō, turbō*; some nouns in **-ns**; *mūs*, Greek nouns in **-pūs**; *calix, coniūnx* (masc. and fem.), *dux* (masc. and fem.), *fornix, grex, rēx*, and most nouns in **-ex** (gen. **-icis**).

Neuter: *crūs, iūs, pūs, rūs, tūs*.

(c) Neuter:—

Nouns in **-c, -e, -l, -n, -t, -ar, -ur** and **-us**.

Exceptions: —

Masculine: *sāl* (sometimes neuter in sing.), *sōl*; *cornicen*, *flāmen*, *liēn*, *oscen*, *pecten*, *tībīcen*; *furfur*, *turtur*, *vultur*; *lepus*.

Feminine: *pecus* (gen. -*udis*).

Fourth Declension — u-Stems

127. Examples:

fructus, M., *fruit*
stem, **fructu-**

cornū, N., *horn*
stem, **cornu-**

		Singular	
		Case-endings	Case-endings
Nom.	fructus	-us	cornū -ū
Gen.	fructūs	-ūs	cornūs -ūs
Dat.	fructuī (-ū)	-uī (-ū)	cornū -ū
Acc.	fructum	-um	cornū -ū
Abl.	fructū	-ū	cornū -ū

		Plural	
Nom.	fructūs	-ūs	cornua -ua
Gen.	fructuum	-uum	cornuum -uum
Dat.	fructibus	-ibus	cornibus -ibus
Acc.	fructūs	-ūs	cornua -ua
Abl.	fructibus	-ibus	cornibus -ibus

Masculines and feminines form the nominative by adding *s* to the stem. Neuters have for the nominative the stem with vowel lengthened. The stem-vowel is usually weakened to *i* before the ending **-bus**.

Gender

128. Most nouns of the fourth declension in **-us** are masculine. The following are feminine: — **acus**, *pin*, *needle*; **anus**, *old woman*; **colus**, *distaff*; **domus**, *house*; **Īdus** (plu.), *Ides*; **manus**, *hand*; **nurus**, *daughter-in-law*; **porticus**, *colonnade*; **quīnquātrūs** (plu.), *a festival*; **socrus**, *mother-in-law*; **tribus**,

tribe; a few names of plants and trees; rarely *penus*, *store*, and *specus*, *cave*.

The only neuters in common use are *cornū*; *genū*, *knee*; *verū*, *spit*. Some cases are found of *pecū*, *flock*; also *artua* (nom. plu.), *limbs*.

Case-Forms

129. An old genitive singular in *-uis* or *-uos* is sometimes found: as, *senātuis*, *senātuos*, of the senate. Nouns in *-tus* sometimes have a second-declension ending in the genitive singular: as, *adventi*, of the arrival.

The dative singular in *-ū*, which is the regular neuter ending, is often found in masculines and feminines.

The genitive plural has sometimes a shorter form in *-um*: as, *currum*, of chariots; *passum*, of paces.

The dative and ablative plural end in *ubus*, in *acus*, *pin*, *needle*; *arcus*, *bow*; *tribus*, *tribe*; in *ibus* or *ubus*, in *artus*, *joint*; *genu*, *knee*; *lacus*, *lake*; *partus*, *birth*; *portus*, *harbor*; *specus*, *cave*; *tonitrus*, *thunder*; *verū*, *spit*.

Names of trees and a few other nouns have second-declension forms in some cases, fourth-declension forms in others; e.g. *laurus*, *bay-tree*, has gen. sing. *laurī* or *laurūs*, abl. *laurō* or *laurū*, nom. plu. *laurī* or *laurūs*, acc. *laurōs* or *laurūs*; *colus*, *distaff*, has similar variation.

130. *Domus*, *F.*, *house*, has two stems, *domo-* and *domu-*, and is declined as follows:—

	Singular	Plural
Nom.	<i>domus</i>	<i>domūs</i>
Gen.	<i>domūs</i> (<i>domī</i>)	<i>domuum</i> (<i>domōrum</i>)
Dat.	<i>domuī</i> (<i>domō</i>)	<i>domibus</i>
Acc.	<i>domum</i>	<i>domōs</i> (<i>domūs</i>)
Abl.	<i>domō</i> (<i>domū</i>)	<i>domibus</i>

The locative is *domī* (rarely *domuī*), *at home*.

Fifth Declension — ē-Stems

131. Examples:

<i>diēs</i> , <i>M.</i> , <i>day</i>	<i>rēs</i> , <i>F.</i> , <i>thing</i>
stem, <i>diē-</i>	stem, <i>rē-</i>

Singular			Case-endings
Nom.	diēs	rēs	-ēs
Gen.	diēī, diēī	rēī, rei	-ēī, ei
Dat.	diēī, diēī	rēī, rei	-ēī, ei
Acc.	diem	rem	-em
Abl.	diē	rē	-ē
Plural			
Nom.	diēs	rēs	-ēs
Gen.	diērum	rērum	-ērum
Dat.	diēbus	rēbus	-ēbus
Acc.	diēs	rēs	-ēs
Abl.	diēbus	rēbus	-ēbus

The nominative is formed by adding **s** to the stem.

Diēs and **rēs** are the only nouns of the fifth declension which are declined throughout. Plural forms of other nouns, except the nominative and accusative, are rare. Stems formed with the suffixes **-iē-** or **-tiē-** rarely have the genitive or dative singular or any case of the plural.

Gender

132. All nouns of the fifth declension are feminine except **diēs** and **merīdiēs**, *midday*. **Diēs** is usually feminine in the singular when it denotes an appointed time or duration of time: **as, cōstitūtā diē**, *on a set day*; **longa diēs**, *a long time*. **Merīdiēs** occurs only in the singular and is always masculine.

Case-Forms

133. The genitive and dative singular sometimes end in **ē** instead of **ēī**: **as, diē, rē**. In these cases **fidēs**, *faith*, shows the same variations as **rēs**. The only form of the genitive and dative of **spēs**, *hope*, is **spēī**. **Dīi**, as genitive of **diēs**, is the usually accepted reading in Aen. 1, 636. An old genitive in **-ēs** is rarely found.

134. Some nouns have forms of both the first and the fifth declensions: **as, māteria, māteriēs, material; mollitia, mollitiēs, weakness**. These rarely have forms of the fifth declension in the genitive and dative singular.

Some nouns have forms of both the third and the fifth declensions: as **plēbs** or **plēbēs** (gen. **plēbis**, **plēbei**, **plēbi**), *common people*; **colluviō** (-ōnis) or **colluviēs** (acc. -em, abl. -ē), *scourings*; **famēs**, *hunger*, has gen. **famis** or **famī**, abl. always **famē**; **requiēs** (-ētis), *rest*, has sometimes gen. **requiē**, acc. **requiem**, abl. **requiē**; **satiās** (-ātis), *sufficiency*, has sometimes nom. **satiēs**, acc. **satiem**, abl. **satiē**; **tābēs** (-is), *wasting*, has abl. **tābē**.

Defective Nouns

Nouns used only in the Singular

135. The meaning of some words is such that they are used commonly only in the singular. These are:

1. Proper names. But the plural is sometimes used to designate two or more persons or places of the same name: as, **Caesarēs**, *the Caesars*; **Galliae**, *Cis- and Transalpine Gaul*; or, to express character: as, **quid Crassōs**, **quid Pompēiōs ēvertit?** *what overthrew men like Crassus and Pompey?* Juv. 10, 108.

2. Names of material: as, **āēr**, *air*; **ferrum**, *iron*. But the plural is sometimes used to designate parts of the material or objects made of it: as, **aera**, *bronzes, wages*; **cērae**, *wax-tablets*; **nivēs**, *snowflakes, snowstorms*; **vīna**, *wines*.

3. Abstract nouns: as, **fidēs**, *faith*; **iuventūs**, *youth*. But the plural is sometimes used to designate various instances of the quality, occurring in different persons, on different occasions, or in different places: as, **odia**, *hatreds*; **otia**, *vacations*; **calōrēs**, **frīgora**, *times of heat and cold*; **propter siccitātēs palūdum**, *because the swamps were dry everywhere*.

Nouns used only in the Plural

136. The following nouns are used only in the plural: —

1. Some names of towns: as, **Athēnae**; **Falērii**.
2. Most names of festivals: as, **Bacchānālia**; **Sāturnālia**.
3. Some names of classes: as, **liberī**, *children* (used rarely in the singular); **māiōrēs**, *ancestors*; **mānēs**, *ghosts*; **posterī**, *descendants*; **optimātēs**, *aristocracy* (used rarely in the singular); **penātēs**, *household gods*.

4. Many others, some of which are clearly plural in meaning, while others are represented in English by the singular. The most important are:—

angustiae, *defile, difficulty*

arma, *arms*

cibāria, *provisions*

divitiae, *riches*

epulae, *banquet*

exsequiae, *funeral*

exuviae, *spoils*

facētia, *wit*

faucēs, *throat, pass*

grātēs, *thanks*

hīberna, *winter-quarters*

īdūs, *Ides*

indūtiae, *truce*

insidiae, *ambush*

Kalendae, *Calends*

minae, *threats*

moenia, *walls*

mūnia, *duties*

Nōnae, *Nones*

nūndinae, *market-day*

nūptiae, *wedding*

reliquiae, *remainder, remains*

scālae, *stairs*

tenebrae, *darkness*

Facētia, **fauces**, and **scālae** are used rarely in the singular.

137. The plural is sometimes used instead of the singular to generalize the statement, or, in poetry, for metrical reasons: as, **ēius ipsius liberōs ā praedōnibus esse sublātōs**, *that his own children were carried off by robbers* (he had only one child); **Manil. 33; monumenta rēgis templaque Vestae**, *the memorials of the king and the temples of Vesta* (**monumenta** and **templa** each refer to one building); **Hor. C. 1, 2, 15.**

Nouns Defective in Cases

138. Several neuters are used only in the nominative and accusative singular:—**fās**, *right*; **nefās**, *wrong*; **instar**, *likeness*; **nihil**, **nīl**, *nothing*; **opus**, *need*; **seculus**, *sex.* The genitive **nihilī** and the ablative **nihilō** (from **nihilum**, *nothing*) are sometimes used.

The following nouns lack the nominative singular:—**dapis**, *feast* (lac also gen. plu.); **frūgis**, *fruit*; **opis**, *help*; **vicis**, *change* (lacks also dat. and gen. plu.); **precī** (dat.), *prayer* (lacks also gen. sing.).

Fors, *chance*, is used only in the nominative and ablative singular and

Nēmō, *no one*, is not used in the genitive and ablative, these cases or supplied by **nūllius** and **nūllō**, from **nūllus**.

Īnfītiaē, *denial*, is used only in the accusative and only with *ire*, *to go*.

Some nouns, especially *u*-stems, are used only in the ablative singular: *as*, *iussū*, *by order*; *iniussū*, *without order*; *nātū*, *by birth*; *pondō*, *by weight* (with a numeral often to be translated *pounds*, the word *lībra* being omitted); *rogātū*, *by request*; *sponte*, *voluntarily*.

Most nouns of the fifth declension (see 131) and many monosyllabic neuters of the third are seldom or never used in the genitive, dative, and ablative plural: *as*, *aciēs*, *line-of-battle*; *speciēs*, *appearance*; *fel*, *poison*; *rūs*, *country*.

Many monosyllables of the third declension lack the genitive plural: *as*, *cor*, *heart*; *fax*, *torch*; *ōs*, *mouth*; *os*, *bone* (*ossium* is used in late Latin).

Many other nouns, especially of the fourth and fifth declensions, are apparently lacking in one or more cases. But it is often mere chance that certain cases are not found.

Variable Nouns

Nouns Variable in Declension

139. Nouns which have forms of two different declensions are called *Heteroclites*.

For nouns varying between the first and the fifth declensions see 134; for nouns varying between the second and the fourth declensions, see 129; for nouns varying between the third and the fifth declensions, see 134. For the declension of *domus*, see 130. For the declension of *pelagus*, *vīrus*, and *vulgus*, see 99.

140. Other *Heteroclites* are: —

Names of festivals, like *Bacchānālia* and *Sāturnālia*, regularly of the third declension, which sometimes have the genitive in *-ōrum*. So, also, *ancīle*, *shield* (gen. plu. *ancīlium* or *ancīliōrum*).

balneum, *bath*; plural, *balnea* (N.) or *balneae* (F.), the latter meaning usually *public baths*.

dēlicia (F.) or *dēlicium* (N.), *pleasure*; plural, *dēliciae* (F.), *pleasures*, *favorite*.

epulum, *feast*; plural, *epulae*, *feast* (not in plural sense).

agerum, *acre*, with singular of the second declension and plural usually the *si* third.
descendit, *descendit* (N.) and *iuenta* (-ae), *youth*; *senectūs* (-ūtis) and *senecta* (-ae), *age*.
penātēs, *penates*.

margarīta and **margarītum**, *pearl*.

Mulciber (gen. **-erī** and **-eris**), *Vulcan*, of the second and third declensions.

ostrea and **ostreum**, *oyster*.

pecus (gen. **pecoris**), *flock*, has also nom. and abl. sing. **pecū**, dat. **pecuī**, nom. and acc. plu. **pecua**, gen. **pecuum**.

penus, **penum** (gen. **penī**, **penoris**, **penūs**), *provisions*, with forms of the second, third, and fourth declensions.

sequester (gen. **-tī**, **-tris**), *trustee*, with forms of the second and third declensions.

vās (gen. **vāsis**), *vessel*, with plural of the second declension (**vāsa**, **vasōrum**, etc.); **vāsum** in the singular occurs rarely in early Latin; a dative plural **vāsibus** also occurs.

The name *Heteroclite* is applied also to those nouns which, though of only one declension, have more than one stem: as, **femur** (gen. **femoris** or **feminis**), *thigh*; **iecur** (gen. **iecinoris**, **iocinoris**, **iecoris**), *liver*.

Nouns Variable in Gender

141. These are called *Heterogeneous*. Besides those given under the head of *Heteroclites* there are also some nouns of the second declension which have masculine and neuter forms in both numbers: as, **balteus**, *belt*; **caelum**, *heaven* (**caelus** is rare); **clipeus**, *shield*; **pīleus**, *cap*. In some nouns of the second declension the singular and plural are of different genders; or, while the singular is of only one gender, the plural is of two. The plural of such nouns has sometimes a meaning different from that of the singular. These are:—

carbasus (F.), <i>sail</i>	carbasa (N.), <i>sails</i>
frēnum (N.), <i>bit</i>	frēnī (M.) or frēna (N.), <i>bridle</i>
iocus (M.), <i>joke</i>	iocī (M.) or ioca (N.), <i>jokes</i>
locus (M.), <i>place</i>	loca (N.), <i>places</i> ; locī (M.), usually <i>topics</i> or <i>passages in books</i>
rāstrum (N.), <i>rake</i>	rāstrī (M.) or rāstra (N.), <i>rakes</i>

Nouns Variable in Meaning

142. In many nouns the meaning of the plural is different from that of the singular; or the plural has both the meaning of the singular and another. Some of these have been given as variable also in declension or gender. Others are:— *Digitized by Microsoft®*

<i>aedēs</i> (sing.), <i>temple</i>	<i>aedēs</i> (plu.), <i>house</i>
<i>auxilium</i> , <i>help</i>	<i>auxilia</i> , <i>auxiliaries</i>
<i>castrum</i> , <i>fort</i>	<i>castra</i> , <i>camp</i>
<i>comitium</i> , <i>meeting-place</i>	<i>comitia</i> , <i>assembly</i>
<i>cōpia</i> , <i>plenty</i>	<i>cōpiae</i> , <i>troops</i>
<i>finis</i> , <i>end</i>	<i>finēs</i> , <i>borders, territory</i>
<i>fortūna</i> , <i>fortune</i>	<i>fortūnae</i> , <i>possessions</i>
<i>grātia</i> , <i>favor, gratitude</i>	<i>grātiaē</i> , <i>thanks</i>
<i>impedimentum</i> , <i>hindrance</i>	<i>impedimenta</i> , <i>baggage</i>
<i>littera</i> , <i>letter</i> (of the alphabet)	<i>litterae</i> , <i>epistle, literature</i>
<i>nātālis</i> , <i>birthday</i>	<i>nātālēs</i> , <i>descent, family</i>
<i>opera</i> , <i>work</i>	<i>operae</i> , <i>workmen</i>
<i>pars</i> , <i>portion</i>	<i>partēs</i> , <i>rôle, party</i>
<i>rōstrum</i> , <i>beak</i>	<i>rōstra</i> , <i>speaker's platform</i>
<i>sāl</i> , <i>salt, wit</i>	<i>salēs</i> , <i>witticisms</i>
<i>vigilia</i> , <i>watchfulness</i>	<i>vigiliae</i> , <i>pickets</i>

NAMES OF PERSONS

143. During the classical period Romans had regularly three names, — *praenomen*, *nomen*, and *cognomen*: as, *Gāius* (*praenomen*) *Iūlius* (*nomen*) *Caesar* (*cognomen*).

144. The *praenomen* was the personal name, indicating the individual. Like our more common first names it was chosen from a somewhat limited list, and individual *gentēs* regularly restricted their choice to a few names in this list. The *praenomina*, with their abbreviations, are:

A. Aulus	L. Lūcius	Q. Quintus
App. Appius	M. Mārcus	Ser. Servius
C. Gāius	M'. Mānius	Sex. Sextus
Cn. Gnaeus	Mām. Māmercus	Sp. Spurius
D. Decimus	N. Numerius	T. Titus
K. Kaesō	P. Pūblius	Ti. (Tib.) Tiberius

145. The *nomen* was the name of the *gēns*. It ends almost always in *ius* and is properly an adjective; thus, *Tullius* means *of the Tullian gens*, and is derived from the name of *Tullus*, the supposed founder of the *gēns*.

146. The *cognomen* was the name of the family, a subdivision of the *gēns*. Many *cognomina* were originally derived from personal peculiarities: as, **Balbus**, *lisp*ing; **Scaevola**, *left-handed*; these had in the course of time entirely lost their proper meaning. Further subdivision of the *gēns* sometimes produced a second *cognomen*: as, **P. Cornēlius Scipiō Nasica**.

An additional name was sometimes given to commemorate an achievement; thus, the elder Scipio received the name **Āfricānus**; his grandson by adoption, the younger Scipio, inherited the name **Āfricānus**, and acquired the additional name, **Numantīnus**. In the classical period there was no name for such additions; in the fourth century they began to be called *agnōmina*.

147. An adopted son took the complete name of the man who adopted him, adding his own original *nomen* in the form of an adjective in *-ānus*; thus, **C. Octāvius Caepiās**, being adopted by **C. Iūlius Caesar**, became **C. Iūlius Caesar Octāviānus**. But this custom became confused before the end of the republic, and under the empire there appears to have been no definite system.

148. In the classical period a woman regularly had only one name, the *nomen* of her father in its feminine form: as, **Cornēlia**, **Terentia**. Other daughters might be distinguished as **Secunda**, **Tertia**, etc. Or, the older daughter would be **Māior** or **Maxima**, the younger **Minor**. A woman's name is often accompanied by the *nomen* of the father or the husband in the genitive case.

149. Slaves had one name, often of foreign origin, or one which indicated the place from which they came: as, **Pharnacēs**; **Āfer**. If freed, they took regularly in the classical period the *praenomen* and *nomen* of the master, retaining the slave name as a *cognomen*: as, **P. Terentius Āfer**.

ADJECTIVES

FORMATION

150. Some adjectives are primitive words: as, **bonus**, **malus**, **brevis**. Others are formed by the addition of a suffix to a root or to the stem of a verb, noun, adjective, or adverb.

151. The suffixes **-āx**, **-ulus**, and **-uus** form adjectives usually of *active* meaning, denoting *character* or *condition*: —

aud-āx , <i>bold</i> (audeo)	crēd-ulus , <i>credulous</i> (crēdō)
pugn-āx , <i>pugnacious</i> (pugnō)	vac-uus , <i>empty</i> (vacō)
bib-ulus , <i>thirsty</i> (bibō)	assid-uus , <i>assiduous</i> (assideō)

152. The suffixes **-lis** and **-bilis** form adjectives denoting *qualities* usually *passive*: —

fragi-lis , <i>fragile</i> (frangō)	amā-bilis , <i>lovable</i> (amō)
ūti-lis , <i>useful</i> (ūtor)	nō-bilis , <i>famous</i> (nōtus)
missi-lis , <i>to be thrown</i> (missus)	vīsi-bilis , <i>visible</i> (vīsus)

153. The suffixes **-bundus** and **-cundus** form adjectives having usually the force of a *present participle*, though adjectives formed with **-cundus** denote regularly a more permanent characteristic: —

mori-bundus , <i>dying</i> (morior)	fā-cundus , <i>eloquent</i> (fāri)
treme-bundus , <i>trembling</i> (tremō)	irā-cundus , <i>irascible</i> (irātus)

154. The suffixes **-eus**, **-āceus**, and, sometimes, **-nus** and **-neus** form adjectives denoting *material*: —

aur-eus , <i>golden</i> (aurum)	acer-nus , <i>of maple</i> (acer)
herb-āceus , <i>of grass</i> (herba)	ebur-neus , <i>of ivory</i> (ebur)

155. The suffixes **-lentus** (rarely **-lēns**) and **-ōsus** form adjectives denoting *supply* or *fullness*: —

opu-lentus , <i>rich</i> (ops)	anim-ōsus , <i>spirited</i> (animus)
vīno-lentus , <i>intoxicated</i> (vīnum)	mōr-ōsus , <i>fretful</i> (mōs)
pesti-lēns , <i>pestilential</i> (pestis)	frūctu-ōsus , <i>fruitful</i> (frūctus)

156. The suffix **-tus** forms adjectives meaning *provided with*; it is often added to an imaginary verb-stem, assuming the forms **-ātus**, **-ītus**, or **-ūtus**: —

fūnes-tus, <i>deadly</i> (fūnus)	barb-ātus, <i>bearded</i> (barba)
hones-tus, <i>honorable</i> (honor)	turr-ītus, <i>turreted</i> (turris)
iūs-tus, <i>just</i> (iūs)	corn-ūtus, <i>horned</i> (cornū)

157. The suffixes -ānus, -ēnus, -īnus, -s, -ās, -is, -ēns, -ēnsis, -iēnsis, -ius, -icus, and -iacus, added to names of places, form proper adjectives denoting *place of origin*: —

Rōm-ānus, <i>Roman</i>	Vei-ēns, <i>of Veii</i>
Cyzic-ēnus, <i>of Cyzicus</i>	Cann-ēnsis, <i>of Cannae</i>
Lat-īnus, <i>Latin</i>	Carthāgin-iēnsis, <i>Carthaginian</i>
Tībur-s, <i>of Tibur</i>	Corinth-ius, <i>Corinthian</i>
Arpin-ās, <i>of Arpinum</i>	Ital-icus, <i>Italian</i>
Samn-is, <i>Samnite</i>	Corinth-iacus, <i>Corinthian</i>

These are often used substantively, especially in the plural, as names of peoples.

The suffix -ānus (sometimes -iānus) is used to form adjectives from names of persons: as, Sullānus, *belonging to Sulla*; Cicerōniānus, *Ciceronian*.

Some of these suffixes are used also to form common adjectives of various meanings: —

veter-ānus, <i>veteran</i> (vetus)	castr-ēnsis, <i>of the camp</i> (castra)
terr-ēnus, <i>earthly</i> (terra)	patr-ius, <i>paternal</i> (pater)
div-īnus, <i>divine</i> (divus)	bell-icus, <i>warlike</i> (bellum)

158. The suffixes -ernus, -ternus, -urnus, -turnus, and -tinus form adjectives denoting *time*, mostly from adverbs: —

hodi-ernus, <i>of to-day</i> (hodiē)	diū-turnus, <i>long-continued</i> (diū)
hes-ternus, <i>of yesterday</i> (heri)	crās-tinus, <i>of to-morrow</i> (crās)
di-urnus, <i>daily</i> (diēs)	

159. Diminutive adjectives are formed like diminutive nouns, and with a similar variety of meaning (see 78): —

ēbrio-lus, <i>tipsy</i> (ēbrius)	pulch-ellus, <i>pretty little</i> (pulcher)
long-ulus, <i>rather long</i> (longus)	pauper-culus, <i>rather poor</i> (pauper)
vet-ulus, <i>little old</i> (vetus)	

160. The suffix -idus forms adjectives denoting a *quality*: —

cup-idus, <i>eager</i> (cupiō)	nit-idus, <i>shining</i> (niteō)
herb-idus, <i>grassy</i> (herba)	tāb-idus, <i>wasting</i> (tābēs)

161. Other adjective suffixes of various meanings are -ālis, -ēlis, -ilis, -āris, -ārius, -cus (sometimes preceded by a vowel), -ticus, -icius, -ivus, -tīvus, -nus, -ter (or -tris), -ester (or -estris), and -timus:—

mort-ālis, <i>mortal</i> (mors)	aest-ivus, <i>of summer</i> (aestus)
fid-ēlis, <i>faithful</i> (fidēs)	recid-ivus, <i>restored</i> (recidō)
vir-ilis, <i>manly</i> (vir)	tempes-tīvus, <i>timely</i> (tempus)
popul-āris, <i>of the people</i> (populus)	vēr-nus, <i>of spring</i> (vēr)
ōrdin-ārius, <i>regular</i> (ōrdō)	palūs-ter, <i>swampy</i> (palūs)
cīvi-cus, <i>of a citizen</i> (cīvis)	sēmēs-tris, <i>lasting six months</i> (sex mēnsēs)
med-icus, <i>healing</i> (medeor)	camp-ester, <i>level</i> (campus)
am-icus, <i>loving</i> (amō)	silv-estris, <i>woody</i> (silva)
cad-ūcus, <i>falling</i> (cadō)	mari-timus, <i>maritime</i> (mare)
domes-ticus, <i>domestic</i> (domus)	
patr-icius, <i>patrician</i> (pater)	

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

162. There are three *degrees of comparison*, — Positive, Comparative, and Superlative. The Comparative is regularly formed by adding *ior*, the Superlative by adding *issimus* (in early Latin *issumus*), to the stem of the Positive, which loses its final vowel if it has one.

Participles used as adjectives are compared in the same manner.

Positive Stem	Comparative	Superlative
altus, <i>high</i> (alto-)	altior	altissimus
fortis, <i>brave</i> (forti-)	fortior	fortissimus
fēlix, <i>happy</i> (fēlic-)	fēlicior	fēlicissimus
amāns, <i>loving</i> (amant-)	amantior	amantissimus
apertus, <i>open</i> (aperto-)	apertior	apertissimus

163. Many adjectives are compared by using *magis*, *more*, and *maximē*, *most*, with the positive: as, *mīrus*, *wonderful*, *magis mīrus*, *maximē mīrus*. But this usage is in prose regularly confined to those adjectives which, on account of their meaning, would not naturally have comparative and superlative

forms in common use, and to those of which the comparative and superlative, if regularly formed, would not be euphonious; e.g. adjectives in **-us** preceded by a vowel: as, **dubius**, *doubtful*, **magis dubius**, **maximē dubius**.

164. Adjectives in **-er** have a regular comparative, but form the superlative by adding **-rimus** to the stem, with the loss of the final vowel of the stem:—

asper , <i>rough</i> (aspero -)	asperior	asperrimus
celer , <i>swift</i> (celeri -)	celerior	celerrimus
ācer , <i>sharp</i> (ācri -)	ācrior	ācerrimus

Dexter, *right*, has the rare superlative **dextimus**.

Mātūrus, *ripe*, besides its regular superlative **mātūrissimus**, has also the form **mātūrrimus**.

Vetus, *old*, has the early comparative **veterior** (later, *vetustior*), superlative **veterrimus**.

165. Six adjectives in **-lis** form the superlative by adding **-limus** to the stem of the positive without its final vowel:—

facilis , <i>easy</i>	facilior	facillimus
difficilis , <i>difficult</i>	difficilior	difficillimus
similis , <i>like</i>	similior	simillimus
dissimilis , <i>unlike</i>	dissimilior	dissimillimus
gracilis , <i>slender</i>	gracilior	gracillimus
humilis , <i>low</i>	humilior	humillimus

Other adjectives in **-lis** are compared regularly: as, **ūtilis**, *useful*, **ūtīlior**, **ūtīlissimus**; but many lack the superlative.

166. Compounds of **-dicus** and **-volus** have the comparative and superlative from the earlier forms in **-dīcēns** (stem **-dīcent-**) and **-volēns** (**-volent-**):—

maledicus , <i>slanderos</i>	maledīcentior	maledīcentissimus
benevolus , <i>benevolent</i>	benevolentior	benevolentissimus

Compounds of **-ficus** are treated in the same way, though the participial

form of the positive is not found: as, *honōrificus*, *honorable*, *honōrificentior*, *honōrificentissimus*.

167. The following adjectives have irregular comparison due to the use of different stems or different forms of the same stem:—

<i>bonus</i> , good	<i>melior</i> , better	<i>optimus</i> , best
<i>malus</i> , bad	<i>pēior</i> , worse	<i>pessimus</i> , worst
<i>magnus</i> , great	<i>māior</i> , greater	<i>maximus</i> , greatest
<i>parvus</i> , small	<i>minor</i> , smaller	<i>minimus</i> , smallest
<i>multus</i> , much	<i>plūs</i> , more	<i>plūrimus</i> , most

Parvus has rarely the superlative *parvissimus*.

168. The indeclinable adjectives *frūgī*, *worthy*, and *nēquam*, *worthless*, are compared as follows:—

<i>frūgī</i>	<i>frūgālior</i>	<i>frūgālissimus</i>
<i>nēquam</i>	<i>nēquior</i>	<i>nēquissimus</i>

169. *Iuvenis*, *young*, and *senex*, *old*, have the irregular comparatives *iūnior* (*iuvenior* is late) and *senior*; for these, *minor nātū* and *māior nātū* are sometimes used (*nātū* being often omitted). The superlatives are *minimus* and *maximus*, with or without *nātū*.

Defective Comparison

170. Of the following adjectives derived from prepositions the positive is rare, being used only in a few special phrases or senses, and usually as a substantive:—

<i>exterus</i> , outside	<i>exterior</i> , outer	<i>{ extrēmus } { extimus }</i>	<i>{ outermost }</i>
<i>inferus</i> , below	<i>inferior</i> , lower	<i>{ infimus } { imus }</i>	<i>{ lowest }</i>
<i>posterus</i> , following	<i>posterior</i> , later	<i>{ postrēmus } { postumus }</i>	<i>{ last late-born }</i>
<i>superus</i> , above	<i>superior</i> , higher	<i>{ suprēmus } { summus }</i>	<i>{ highest }</i>

The positive is used, for example, in *exterī*, *foreigners*; *nātiōnēs exterae*, *foreign peoples*; *inferī*, *the gods of the lower world*; *superī*, *the heavenly gods*; *posterī*, *posterity*; *omnia supera*,

infera, *all things above and below*; **posterō diē**, *on the following day*; **in posterum**, *for the future*.

The following adjectives lack the positive:—

citerior , <i>on this side</i>	citimus , <i>nearest</i>
ulterior , <i>farther</i>	ultimus , <i>farthest</i>
dēterior , <i>worse</i>	dēterrimus , <i>worst</i>
interior , <i>inner</i>	intimus , <i>inmost</i>
prior , <i>former</i>	prīmus , <i>first</i>
propior , <i>nearer</i>	proximus , <i>nearest, next</i>
ōcior , <i>swifter</i>	ōcissimus , <i>swiftest</i>

DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES

171. There are two declensions of adjectives, one being a combination of the first and second declensions of nouns, the other having the terminations of the third declension of nouns. Adjectives of the first and second declensions have three distinct series of terminations for the masculine, feminine, and neuter, corresponding respectively to masculine *o*-stems (95), *ā*-stems (90), and neuter *o*-stems (95). The third declension consists of consonant stems and *i*-stems; it usually has only two complete series of terminations, since masculine and feminine in the third declension are not distinguished by different endings.

Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions

172. Example:

bonus, *good*; stems, **bono-**, **bonā-**

	Singular			Plural		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	bonus	bona	bonum	bonī	bonae	bona
Gen.	bonī	bonae	bonī	bonōrum	bonārum	bonōrum
Dat.	bonō	bonae	bonō	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs
Acc.	bonum	bonam	bonum	bonōs	bonās	bona
Abl.	bonō	bonā	bonō	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs

There is a special form in **-e** (bone) for the vocative singular masculine.

173. Adjectives in **-ius** have uncontracted forms in the genitive and vocative singular, masculine and neuter: as, **rēgius**, *royal*; gen. sing. **rēgiī**, voc. sing. **rēgie**. (See 100.)

The possessive adjective **meus**, *my*, has no vocative singular masculine; in its place, **mī**, a dative of **ego**, is used.

Stems in **-quo-**, in order to avoid **-quu-**, have the nominative singular in **-cus** (or **-quos**), **-qua**, **-cum** (or **-quom**), the accusative singular in **-cum** (or **-quom**), **-quam**, **-cum** (or **-quom**): as, **aecus** (or **aequos**), **aequa**, **aecum** (or **aequom**).

174. Stems in **-ro-** preceded by a long vowel are declined like **bonus**: as, **sevērus**, *stern*; **sincērus**, *sincere*; also, **ferus**, *wild*; **merus**, *pure*; **mōrigerus**, *obliging*; **praeposterus**, *reversed*; **properus**, *quick*; **prosperus** (rarely, **prosper**), *lucky*; **triquetrus**, *triangular*; **īferus**, *below*; and **superus**, *above* (rarely, in early Latin, **īfer** and **super**).

175. Other adjective stems in **-ro-** are declined as follows: like **liber**, if the stem-ending is **-ero-**; otherwise, like **niger**; (cf. the declensions of **puer** and **ager**, 96): —

liber, free			niger, black		
stems, libero-, liberā-			stems, nigro-, nigrā-		
Singular					
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. liber	libera	liberum	niger	nigra	nigrum
G. liberī	liberae	liberī	nigrī	nigrae	nigrī
D. liberō	liberae	liberō	nigrō	nigrae	nigrō
A. liberum	liberam	liberum	nigrum	nigram	nigrum
A. liberō	liberā	liberō	nigrō	nigrā	nigrō
Plural					
N. liberī	liberae	libera	nigrī	nigrae	nigra
G. liberōrum	liberārum	liberōrum	nigrōrum	nigrārum	nigrōrum
D. liberis	liberis	liberis	nigris	nigris	nigris
A. liberōs	liberās	libera	nigrōs	nigrās	nigra
A. liberis	liberis	liberis	nigris	nigris	nigris

Like **liber** are declined **asper**, *rough*; **gibber**, *hump-backed*; **lacer**, *torn*; **miser**, *wretched*; **sēmifer**, *half-beast*; **tener**, *tender*; compounds of **-fer** and **-ger**, *bearing*: as, **mortifer**, *fatal*, and **āliger**, *winged*; sometimes, **dexter**, *right*; and one adjective in **-ur**, **satur**, *full*.

176. Nine adjectives in **-us** or **-er** have pronominal endings in the genitive and dative singular of all genders,—**-ius** in the genitive, **-ī** in the dative. **Alius** has **aliud** in the nominative and accusative singular neuter.

alius , <i>other</i>	nūllus , <i>no</i>	sōlus , <i>only</i>
alter , <i>the other</i>	ūllus , <i>any</i>	tōtus , <i>whole</i>
neuter , <i>neither</i>	ūnus , <i>one</i>	uter , <i>which (of two)</i>

The singular of these adjectives is declined as follows, the genitive of **alius** being contracted from **aliūs**:—

	M.	F.	N.		M.	F.	N.
Nom.	alius	alia	aliud		alter	altera	alterum
Gen.	aliūs	aliūs	aliūs		alteriūs	alteriūs	alteriūs
Dat.	aliī	aliī	aliī		alterī	alterī	alterī
Acc.	alium	aliam	aliud		alterum	alteram	alterum
Abl.	aliō	aliā	aliō		alterō	alterā	alterō
Nom.	ūnus	ūna	ūnum		uter	utra	utrum
Gen.	ūniūs	ūniūs	ūniūs		utriūs	utriūs	utriūs
Dat.	ūnī	ūnī	ūnī		utrī	utrī	utrī
Acc.	ūnum	ūnam	ūnum		utrum	utram	utrum
Abl.	ūnō	ūnā	ūnō		utrō	utrā	utrō

The plural is regular.

177. The **ī** of the genitive is often shortened in verse, especially in **alterius**; always in the compound **utriusque**.

The genitive singular of **alter** is commonly used instead of the genitive singular of **alius**.

The regular forms of the genitive and dative singular are sometimes found; e.g. **aliī**, masc. gen.; **aliae**, fem. gen. and dat.; **alterae**, fem. dat.; **nūlli**, masc. gen.

Like **uter** are declined its compounds,—**utercumque**, **uterlibet**, **utervis**,

uterque. *Alteruter*, one of two, is usually treated as a single word and only the second part is declined.

Alis and *alid* are early forms for *alius* and *aliud*; *alii* in the dative is rarely contracted to *ali*.

Adjectives of the Third Declension

178. Adjectives of this declension are classified according to the number of endings in the nominative singular as Adjectives of One, Two, or Three Endings.

Adjectives of One Ending

179. This class includes all consonant stems except comparatives; but nearly all have assumed the characteristics of *i*-stems in the following cases: —

Ablative singular, *-ī* (but often *-e*);

Nominative and accusative plural neuter, *-ia*;

Genitive plural, *-ium*;

Accusative plural masculine and feminine, *-īs* (but often *-ēs*).

This class includes also all Present Participles.

All adjectives of this class except stems in *-l-*, *-r-*, or *-s-* form the nominative by adding *s* to the stem. Present Participles with stems in *-nt-* drop *t* before *s*. For other changes see the rules for nouns of the third declension (107).

180. Examples:

audāx, bold; stem, *audāc-* *amāns*, loving; stem, *amant-*

Singular

	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
Nom.	<i>audāx</i>	<i>audāx</i>	<i>amāns</i>	<i>amāns</i>
Gen.	<i>audācis</i>	<i>audācis</i>	<i>amantis</i>	<i>amantis</i>
Dat.	<i>audācī</i>	<i>audācī</i>	<i>amantī</i>	<i>amantī</i>
Acc.	<i>audācem</i>	<i>audāx</i>	<i>amantem</i>	<i>amāns</i>
Abl.	<i>audācī (-e)</i>	<i>audācī (-e)</i>	<i>amante (-ī)</i>	<i>amante (-ī)</i>

Plural

Nom.	audācēs	audācia	amantēs	amantia
Gen.	audācium	audācium	amantium	amantium
Dat.	audācibus	audācibus	amantibus	amantibus
Acc.	audācīs (-ēs)	audācia	amantīs (-ēs)	amantia
Abl.	audācibus	audācibus	amantibus	amantibus

pār, *equal*; stem, par- vetus, *old*; stem, veter-

Singular

	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
Nom.	pār	pār	vetus	vetus
Gen.	paris	paris	veteris	veteris
Dat.	parī	parī	veterī	veterī
Acc.	parem	pār	veterem	vetus
Abl.	parī	parī	vetere (-ī)	vetere (ī)

Plural

Nom.	parēs	paria	veterēs	vetera
Gen.	parium	parium	veterum	veterum
Dat.	paribus	paribus	veteribus	veteribus
Acc.	parīs (-ēs)	paria	veterēs	vetera
Abl.	paribus	paribus	veteribus	veteribus

181. Some adjectives regularly have -e in the ablative singular; the most important are:—

caeles, <i>heavenly</i>	prīnceps, <i>chief</i>
compos, <i>master of</i>	pūbes, <i>grown up</i>
dīves, <i>rich</i>	sōspes, <i>safe</i>
particeps, <i>sharing</i>	superstes, <i>surviving</i>
pauper, <i>poor</i>	vetus, <i>old</i>

Adjectives used as proper names usually have the ablative singular in -e: as, Fēlice, Iuvenāle.

Present Participles used as adjectives have -ī in the abl. sing.; otherwise, -e: as, ab egentī virō, *by a poor man*; Tarquiniō rēgnante, *in the reign of Tarquin*.

Other adjectives, when used as substantives or in verse where a short syllable is needed, sometimes have -e in the abl. sing.

182. *Pūbes* (gen. *pūberis*), *grown up*, and *über, fertile*, like *vetus*, have -a (not -ia) in the nominative and accusative plural.

183. The following adjectives regularly have -um (not -ium) in the genitive plural:—those which have -e in the abl. sing. (see 181); compounds of nouns which have -um in the genitive plural: as, *inops, helpless*; *quadrupēs, four-footed*; also, *memor, mindful*; *über, fertile*; *vetus, old*; and *vigil, watchful*.

Present Participles sometimes have the genitive plural in -um in poetry.

184. Adjectives which have -um in the genitive plural regularly have -ēs in the accusative plural; others regularly -is.

Adjectives of Two Endings

185. These include all i-stems, except some of those in -ri-, and all comparatives except *plūs*; the latter were originally s-stems, the s being preserved only in the nominative and accusative singular neuter. (Cf. 110.)

Examples:

levis, light; stem, *levi-*

	Singular		Plural	
	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
Nom.	<i>levis</i>	<i>leve</i>	<i>levēs</i>	<i>levia</i>
Gen.	<i>levis</i>	<i>levis</i>	<i>levium</i>	<i>levium</i>
Dat.	<i>levī</i>	<i>levī</i>	<i>levibus</i>	<i>levibus</i>
Acc.	<i>levem</i>	<i>leve</i>	<i>levīs (-ēs)</i>	<i>levia</i>
Abl.	<i>levī</i>	<i>levī</i>	<i>levibus</i>	<i>levibus</i>

melior, better; stem, *meliōr-* for *meliōs-*

	Singular		Plural	
Nom.	<i>melior</i>	<i>melius</i>	<i>meliōrēs</i>	<i>meliōra</i>
Gen.	<i>meliōris</i>	<i>meliōris</i>	<i>meliōrum</i>	<i>meliōrum</i>
Dat.	<i>meliōrī</i>	<i>meliōrī</i>	<i>meliōribus</i>	<i>meliōribus</i>
Acc.	<i>meliōrem</i>	<i>melius</i>	<i>meliōrēs</i>	<i>meliōra</i>
Abl.	<i>meliōre</i>	<i>meliōre</i>	<i>meliōribus</i>	<i>meliōribus</i>

186. The ablative singular of adjectives like *levis*, when used substantively or in verse, ends sometimes in e. The genitive plural ending is rarely -um instead of -ium.

The ablative singular of comparatives has rarely *-ī* for *-e*; the accusative plural has rarely *-īs* for *-ēs*.

187. *Plūs, more*, is declined as follows, being used in the singular only as a neuter noun:—

Singular			Plural	
	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
Nom.	—	<i>plūs</i>	<i>plūrēs</i>	<i>plūra</i>
Gen.	—	<i>plūris</i>	<i>plūrium</i>	<i>plūrium</i>
Dat.	—	—	<i>plūribus</i>	<i>plūribus</i>
Acc.	—	<i>plūs</i>	<i>plūrēs (-īs)</i>	<i>plūra</i>
Abl.	—	—	<i>plūribus</i>	<i>plūribus</i>

Complūrēs has the nominative and accusative neuter *complūra* or *complūria*.

Adjectives of Three Endings

188. These include only certain stems in *-ri-* and the names of the months, *September, Octōber, November, December*, which are properly and usually adjectives. Except in the nominative singular masculine, these adjectives have only two distinct series of terminations. The masculine is declined like *imber* (113), the feminine like *nāvis* (113), the neuter like *mare* (113).

Example:

<i>ācer, sharp; stem, ācri-</i>						
Singular			Plural			
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	<i>ācer</i>	<i>ācris</i>	<i>ācre</i>	<i>ācrēs</i>	<i>ācrēs</i>	<i>ācria</i>
Gen.	<i>ācris</i>	<i>ācris</i>	<i>ācris</i>	<i>ācrium</i>	<i>ācrium</i>	<i>ācrium</i>
Dat.	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācribus</i>	<i>ācribus</i>	<i>ācribus</i>
Acc.	<i>ācrem</i>	<i>ācrem</i>	<i>ācre</i>	<i>ācrīs (-ēs)</i>	<i>ācrīs (-ēs)</i>	<i>ācria</i>
Abl.	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācribus</i>	<i>ācribus</i>	<i>ācribus</i>

189. Many of these adjectives have sometimes a nominative singular masculine in *-is*, and in early Latin the ending *-er* is rarely feminine.

Some adjective stems in *-ri-*, as *fūnebris, illūstris, lūgubris, mediocris*, and *muliebris*, always have the nominative singular masculine in *-is*; they are therefore adjectives of two endings, declined like *levis*.

Celer, *swift*, has the nominative singular **celer**, **celeris**, **celere**, the second **e** being a part of the stem; the genitive plural, which occurs only as a substantive, is **celerum**. **Volucer**, *winged*, has usually the genitive plural **volucrum**.

190. Some adjectives have forms of both declensions: as, **gracilis** or **gracilus**, *slender*; **hilaris** or **hilarus**, *gay*; **inermis** or **inermus**, *unarmed*; **bicolor** or **bicolōrus**, *two-colored*.

191. A few adjectives are indeclinable: as, **frūgī**, *worthy*; **necesse**, *necessary*; **nēquam**, *worthless*; and most of the cardinal numerals. **Potis**, *able*, is commonly used as an indeclinable adjective, but has the neuter form **pote**.

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES

192. The Possessive Adjectives are:—

meus , <i>my</i>	tuus , <i>your</i> (singular)	suus , <i>his, her, its</i> ,
noster , <i>our</i>	vester , <i>your</i> (plural)	<i>their</i>

Voster is an earlier form of **vester**.

Another possessive adjective is **cūius**, *whose*, usually interrogative, rarely relative.

These are declined as adjectives of the first and second declensions; see **172**, **175**. For the vocative of **meus**, see **173**.

193. The ablative singular is often emphasized by the addition of the enclitic **-pte**: as, **suōpte**. The ablative singular and, less often, other cases may be emphasized by the addition of **-met**: as, **suōmet**, **meamet**.

ADVERBS

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS

194. Adverbs may be divided into three classes on the basis of form or derivation:—

1. Those which can be identified as original case-forms (ablative, accusative, or locative) of adjectives (including participles), nouns, or pronouns.

2. Those formed with various suffixes.

3. Those which are a combination of two or more words, usually a preposition and a case-form.

195. (1) Adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declensions usually end in *ē*, which is the remnant of *ēd*, an early ablative ending of *o*-stems: as, *probē*, *honestly* (from *probus*); *liberē*, *freely* (*liber*); *aegrē*, *reluctantly* (*aeger*); *doctē*, *learnedly* (*doctus*).

This *ē* is shortened in *bene*, *well*, and *male*, *badly*, according to the principle of iambic shortening (see 43).

196. The ablative ending *ō* appears in some adverbs of this class: as, *primō*, *at first*; *tūtō*, *safely*. This *ō* is sometimes shortened, as in *cito*, *quickly*. Some adverbs have two endings, *ē* and *ō*: as, *certē* and *certō*, *certainly*; *cōsultē* and *cōsultō*, *purposely*.

197. From adjectives of the first and second declensions adverbs are formed also with the ending of the feminine ablative, *ā*: as, *aliā*, *otherwise*; *rēctā*, *straightway*; *ūnā*, *together*.

198. Some adverbs are derived from adjectives which have gone out of use: as, *ferē*, *fermē*, *nearly*; *saepe*, *often*.

199. Adverbs ending in *ō* or *ā* are derived also from pronouns: as, *eō*, *thither*; *quō*, *whither*; *eā*, *that way*; *eādem*, *the same way*. Of nouns also the ablative sometimes serves as an adverb: as, *volgō*, *commonly*; *foris*, *out of doors*; *forte*, *by chance*; *sponte*, *voluntarily*.

200. The neuter accusative singular of adjectives is often used as an adverb: as, *facile*, *easily*; *multum*, *much*; *plērumque*, *very often*; *recēns*, *lately*. This is the origin also of *iterum*, *a second time*; *nōn* (*nē-oinom*, later *ūnum*), *not*.

201. Feminine accusative endings, singular and plural (*am* and *ās*), appear in certain adverbs of which some are evidently derived from nouns, pronouns, or adjectives, and others are of unknown origin: as, *clam*, *secretly*; *palam*, *openly*; *perperam*, *wrongly*; *quam*, *how*; *tam*, *so*; *aliās*, *at other times*; *forās*, *out of doors*.

202. The ending **tim**, originally the ending of the accusative singular of stems in **-ti-**, is used generally to form adverbs from nouns and participles: as, **fūrtim**, *secretly*; **partim**, *partly*; **sēparātim**, *separately*; **statim**, *on the spot*. This ending appears as **sim**, if the participle ends in **sus**: as, **caesim**, *by cutting*; **cursim**, *quickly*; **passim**, *here and there* (from **pandō**). From the use of **tim** with participles of the first conjugation was developed the adverbial ending **ātim**: as, **gradātim**, *gradually*; **singulātim**, *singly*.

203. A locative ending **i** appears in adverbs of place formed from pronominal stems: as, **hīc** (for **hī-ce**), *here*; **illīc** (for **illī-ce**), *there*. Locative in form and sense are also **ibi**, *there*, and **ubi**, *where*.

204. (2) The following are examples of adverbial suffixes, some of which may have been originally case-endings:—

-dam, as in **quondam**, *once*.

-de, as in **inde**, *thence*; **unde**, *whence*.

-dem, as in **tandem**, *at last*.

-im (**-inc = im-ce**), as in **illim**, **illinc**, *thence*; **hinc**, *hence*; **interim**, *meanwhile*.

-per, as in **nūper**, *lately*; **semper**, *always*; **tantisper**, *so long*.

-tus or, more often, **-itus**, as in **dīvinitus**, *from the gods*; **funditus**, *from the bottom*. This suffix, which denotes *source*, forms many adverbs from nouns and adjectives; in **intus**, *within*, and **subtus**, *below*, it is added to prepositions.

205. Adverbs are formed from adjectives of the third declension by adding **ter** or **iter** to the stem; a final **t** of the stem is dropped: as, **ācriter**, *eagerly*; **fortiter**, *bravely*; **audācter**, *boldly*; **sapienter**, *wisely*; **fēliciter**, *happily*.

Adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declensions sometimes have this ending as well as the usual **ē**: as, **dūrē** and **dūriter**, *harshly*; **hūmānē** and **hūmāniter**, *humanely*.

206. (3) The following adverbs are examples of the combination of two or more words welded into a single word:—**admodum**, *fully*; **anteā**, *before*; **intereā**, *meanwhile*; **posteā**, *afterward*; **comminus** (**con-manus**), *hand-to-hand*; **ēminus** (**ex-manus**), *at long range*; **dēnuō** (**dē novō**), *anew*; **extemplō** (**ex tempulō**), *immediately*; **forsan** (**fors an**), *perhaps*; **forsitan** (**fors sit an**), *perhaps*; **īlicō** (**in locō**) *on the spot*; **nihilōminus**, *nevertheless*; **nīmīrum**, *undoubtedly*; **postmodo**, *presently*; **prōrsus** (**prō vorsus**), *absolutely*; **rūrsus** (**re-vorsus**), *again*; **quotannīs**, *yearly*; **īlicet** (**ī**, imperative, and **licet**, *you may go*), *straightway*; **scīlicet** (**scī-licet**), *certainly*; **vidēlicet** (**vidē-licet**), *clearly*.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS

207. Adverbs may be classified according to their meaning in five groups:—Adverbs of Place; Adverbs of Time; Adverbs of Manner, Degree, or Cause; Negative Adverbs; Numeral Adverbs.

208. (1) Most Adverbs of Place were originally case-forms of pronouns; they may be subdivided into four groups, denoting respectively *place where*, *place to which*, *place from which*, and *way by which*; the following are the most common:—

hīc , <i>here</i>	hūc , <i>hither</i>	hinc , <i>hence</i>	hāc , <i>this way</i>
ibi , <i>there</i>	eō , <i>thither</i>	inde , <i>thence</i>	eā , <i>that way</i>
illic , <i>there</i>	illūc , <i>thither</i>	illinc , <i>thence</i>	illā (illāc), <i>that way</i>
istīc , <i>there</i>	istūc , <i>thither</i>	istinc , <i>thence</i>	istā , <i>that way</i>
ubi , <i>where</i>	quō , <i>whither</i>	unde , <i>whence</i>	quā , <i>what way</i>
alicubi , <i>some- where</i>	aliquō , (<i>to</i>) <i>somewhere</i>	alicunde , <i>from somewhere</i>	aliquā , <i>some way</i>

209. A fifth group contains compounds of **vorsum**, *turned*:—**deorsum**, *downward*; **sūrsūm**, *upward*; **intrōrsūm**, *inward*; **prōrsūm**, *forward* (**prōrsus**, *absolutely*); **seorsūm**, *apart*; **quōrsūm**, *to what end*; **retrōrsūm**, *backward*; **rūrsūm** (**rūrsus** usually in classical Latin), *again*. Digitized by Microsoft®

210. Other adverbs of place are *citrō*, to this side; *ultrō*, beyond (often best translated *actually*, i.e. beyond what is expected or required); *intrō*, within; *porrō*, further on; *retrō*, backward; *ūspiam*, *ūsquā*, anywhere; *nūsquā*, nowhere; *ūsq̄ue*, as far as, continuously; *ubiq̄ue*, everywhere; and some derived from nouns or adjectives: as, *dextrā*, on the right; *foris*, out of doors; *funditus*, from the bottom; *rēctā*, straightway.

211. (2) Examples of Adverbs of Time are:—*iam*, already; *mox*, *postmodo*, presently; *nūper*, recently; *nunc*, now; *tum* (*tunc*), then; *quondam*, formerly; *anteā*, before; *prīmō*, at first; *prīum*, first; *deinde*, next; *postea*, afterward; *dēnique*, *tandem*, *postrēmō*, at last; *postrēmum*, for the last time; *aliās*, at other times; *aliquandō*, at some time; *extemplō*, immediately; *umquā*, ever; *numquā*, never; *semper*, always; *totiēns*, so often; *aliquotiēns*, several times; *hodiē*, to-day; *prīdiē*, the day before; *postrīdiē*, the day after; *cottīdiē*, every day; *herī*, yesterday; *crās*, to-morrow; *iterum*, a second time; *rūrsus*, again; *crēbrō*, repeatedly; *saepe*, often; *plērumque*, very often; *tantisper*, so long; *interim*, *interea*, meantime.

212. (3) Most adverbs derived from adjectives or nouns are Adverbs of Manner: as, *tūtō*, safely; *breviter*, briefly; *gradātīm*, by degrees. Others are *ita*, *sīc*, so; *ut* (*utī*), how; *utut*, *utcumque*, however.

Adverbs of Degree are *magis*, more; *paene*, almost; *quam*, how; *quamvis*, *quamlibet*, however much; *tam*, so; *valdē*, very, very much; *vix*, hardly.

Adverbs of Cause are *eō*, *ideō*, *idcirco*, *propterea*, on this account.

213. (4) The Negative Adverbs are *nōn*, not; *haud*, *minimē*, not at all, by no means (in stronger negation); *nē* (in prohibitions; and also in composition: as, *nēmō*, for *nē-homō*, no one; *negō*, I say not; *nesciō*, I know not); *nē . . . quidem*, not even; *nēdum*, much less. *

(5) The Numeral Adverbs are treated under the head of Numerals.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

214. With few exceptions the only adverbs which are compared are those which are derived from adjectives or participles.

The Comparative of an Adverb is the neuter accusative singular of the comparative of the adjective from which the adverb is derived (see 201). The Superlative of an Adverb is formed from the superlative of the adjective by changing the stem-vowel to *ē* (see 195).

If the adjective is compared with *magis* and *maximē*, the adverb is compared in the same way: —

<i>altē, on high</i>	<i>altius</i>	<i>altissimē</i>
<i>doctē, learnedly</i>	<i>doctius</i>	<i>doctissimē</i>
<i>miserē, wretchedly</i>	<i>miserius</i>	<i>miserrimē</i>
<i>ācritē, sharply</i>	<i>ācrius</i>	<i>ācerrimē</i>
<i>fortiter, bravely</i>	<i>fortius</i>	<i>fortissimē</i>
<i>facile, easily</i>	<i>facilius</i>	<i>facillimē</i>
<i>ēgregiē, excellently</i>	<i>magis ēgregiē</i>	<i>maximē ēgregiē</i>
<i>bene, well</i>	<i>melius</i>	<i>optimē</i>
<i>male, badly</i>	<i>pēius</i>	<i>pessimē</i>
<i>parum, little</i>	<i>minus</i>	<i>minimē</i>
<i>prope, near</i>	<i>propius</i>	<i>proximē</i>

215. The following adverbs have no positive: — *magis* (in poetry sometimes *mage*), *more*; *maximē*, *most*; *potius*, *rather*; *potissimum*, *especially*; *prius*, *before*; *primum*, *first*.

A few adverbs have superlatives in *-ō* or *-um*: as, *meritissimō*, *most deservedly*; *primō*, *at first*; *postrēmō*, *at last*; *primum*, *first*; *postrēmum*, *for the last time*; *plūrium*, *most*.

A few adverbs, not derived from adjectives, are compared as follows: —

diū, a long time; *diūtius*; *diūtissimē*.
nūper, recently; *nūperrimē, most recently*.
saepe, often; *saepius, saepissimē*.
satis, enough; *satius, better*.

NUMERALS

Under this head are included Numeral Adjectives and Numeral Adverbs.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES

216. Of Numeral Adjectives there are three principal classes: —

1. Cardinals, answering the question, *How many?*
2. Ordinals, answering the question, *Which in order?*
3. Distributives, answering the question, *How many at a time?*

Cardinals	Ordinals	Distributives
1. ūnus, <i>one</i>	prīmus, <i>first</i>	singulī, <i>one each</i>
2. duo	secundus	bīnī
3. trēs	tertius	ternī, trīnī
4. quattuor	quārtus	quaternī
5. quīnque	quīntus	quīnī
6. sex	sextus	sēnī
7. septem	septimus	septēnī
8. octō	octāvus	octōnī
9. novem	nōnus	novēnī
10. decem	decimus	dēnī
11. ūndecim	ūndecimus	ūndēnī
12. duodecim	duodecimus	duodēnī
13. tredecim	tertius decimus	ternī dēnī
14. quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	quaternī dēnī
15. quīndecim	quīntus decimus	quīnī dēnī
16. sēdecim	sextus decimus	sēnī dēnī
17. septendecim	septimus decimus	septēnī dēnī
18. duodēvigintī	duodēvicēsīmus	duodēvicēnī
19. ūndēvigintī	ūndēvicēsīmus	ūndēvicēnī
20. vīgintī	vicēsīmus	vicēnī
21. { vīgintī ūnus { ūnus et vīgintī	{ vicēsīmus prīmus { ūnus et vicēsīmus	{ vicēnī singulī { singulī et vicēnī
28. duodētrīgintā	duodētricēsīmus	duodētrīcēnī

	Cardinals	Ordinals	Distributives
29.	ūndētrīgintā	ūndētrīcēsīmus	ūndētrīcēnī
30.	trīgintā	trīcēsīmus	trīcēnī
40.	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsīmus	quadrāgēnī
50.	quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēsīmus	quīnquāgēnī
60.	sexāgintā	sexāgēsīmus	sexāgēnī
70.	septuāgintā	septuāgēsīmus	septuāgēnī
80.	octōgintā	octōgēsīmus	octōgēnī
90.	nōnāgintā	nōnāgēsīmus	nōnāgēnī
100.	centum	centēsīmus	centēnī
101.	{centum ūnus centum et ūnus	centēsīmus prīmus	centēnī singulī
200.	ducentī	ducentēsīmus	ducēnī
300.	trecentī	trecentēsīmus	trecēnī
400.	quadringentī	quadringentēsīmus	quadringēnī
500.	quīngentī	quīngentēsīmus	quīngēnī
600.	sescentī	sescentēsīmus	sescēnī
700.	septingentī	septingentēsīmus	septingēnī
800.	octingentī	octingentēsīmus	octingēnī
900.	nōngentī	nōngentēsīmus	nōngēnī
1000.	mīlle	mīllēsīmus	singula mīllia
100,000.	centum mīllia	centiēs mīllēsīmus	centēna mīllia

If there are more than two numbers in a compound numeral, **et** is rarely used: as, **ducentī quīnquāgintā trēs**, 253.

217. Above 100,000, cardinals and ordinals are formed by prefixing to **centēna mīllia** and **centiēs mīllēsīmus** the proper numeral adverb: as, cardinal, **centiēs centēna mīllia**, 10,000,000; ordinal, **centiēs centiēs mīllēsīmus**; the distributive is the same as the cardinal.

The higher cardinals are used chiefly for reckoning money, and **centēna mīllia** is regularly omitted: as, **quīnquiēs sēstertium**, 500,000 *sesterces*.

218. Besides their ordinary use, distributives are regularly used in place of cardinals with nouns plural in form but usually singular in meaning: as, **bīna castra**, *two camps*. With such nouns, however, **ūnī**, not **singulī**, is used, and **trīnī**, not **ternī**.

Distributives are used also in multiplication: as **bis bīna**, *twice two*; and sometimes, in poetry, in place of cardinals.

Alternative Forms

219. **Alter** is often used for **secundus**.

Compound forms, with or without **et**, are sometimes used for the numbers 13-19: as **decem trēs**; **decem et octō**. In the corresponding ordinals the larger number sometimes comes first, with or without **et**.

Instead of **duodēvigintī** and **ūndēvigintī**, **octōdecim** and **novendecim** are sometimes used. There are similar alternative forms for 28, 29; 38, 39; etc. The corresponding ordinals are sometimes **octāvus decimus**, **nōnus decimus**, etc. So also the distributives: as, **octōnī dēnī**.

The ordinals **vīcēsīmus**, **trīcēsīmus**, etc., are spelled in early Latin **vīcēnsīmus**, **trīcēnsīmus**, etc.

Mīlia is spelled with one **l** in the imperial period.

FRACTIONS

220. Fractions are expressed, as in English, by a cardinal for the numerator and an ordinal for the denominator; the latter is in the feminine gender, agreeing with **pars**, expressed or understood: as, **trēs quīntae**, *three-fifths*. *One-half* is **dīmidium** or **dīmidia pars**.

When the numerator is *one*, it is omitted and **pars** is expressed: as, **tertia pars**, *one-third*.

When the denominator is only one larger than the numerator, the denominator is omitted and **pars** is expressed: as, **trēs partēs**, *three-fourths*.

ROMAN NOTATION

221.

1 I	15 XV	100 C
2 II	16 XVI	200 CC
3 III	17 XVII	300 CCC
4 IIII or IV	18 XVIII	400 CCCC
5 V	19 XVIIIII or XIX	500 D
6 VI	20 XX	600 DC

7 VII	21 XXI	700 DCC
8 VIII	30 XXX	800 DCCC
9 VIIII or IX	40 XXXX or XL	900 DCCCC
10 X	50 L	1000 ①, ∞ or M
11 XI	60 LX	2000 ① ①, MM, or $\overline{\text{II}}$
12 XII	70 LXX	10,000 ① or $\overline{\text{X}}$
13 XIII	80 LXXX	100,000 ① or $\overline{\text{C}}$
14 { XIII XIV	90 { LXXXX XC	1,000,000 $\overline{\text{X}}$

In numbers like 4, 9, and 14 the addition method of formation is more common than the subtraction method; e.g., IIII is more common than IV.

① was the sign for 1000 until the second century A.D.

DECLENSION OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES

222. Of the Cardinals only *ūnus*, *duo*, *trēs*, the hundreds above one hundred, and *mille* when used as a noun, are declined.

For the declension of *ūnus* see **176**; *ūnus* is used in the plural meaning *alone*, and also with its regular numerical force when it agrees with a noun which is plural in form but singular in meaning: as, *ūna castra*, *one camp*. The plural is used also in the phrase *ūnī et alterī*, *one party and the other*.

223. *Duo* and *trēs* are declined as follows:

	M.	F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
Nom.	<i>duo</i>	<i>duae</i>	<i>duo</i>	<i>trēs</i>	<i>tria</i>
Gen.	<i>duōrum</i>	<i>duārum</i>	<i>duōrum</i>	<i>trium</i>	<i>trium</i>
Dat.	<i>duōbus</i>	<i>duābus</i>	<i>duōbus</i>	<i>tribus</i>	<i>tribus</i>
Acc.	<i>duōs (duo)</i>	<i>duās</i>	<i>duo</i>	<i>trēs (trīs)</i>	<i>tria</i>
Abl.	<i>duōbus</i>	<i>duābus</i>	<i>duōbus</i>	<i>tribus</i>	<i>tribus</i>

Ambō, *both*, is declined like *duo*.

224. The hundreds above one hundred are declined like the plural of *bonus*, except that the genitive ending is usually *-um*, not *-ōrum*.

225. *Mille* in the singular is an indeclinable adjective; in the plural it is used as a noun, is declined like the plural of

sedile (113), and takes a dependent genitive; e.g., **tria millia hominum**, *three thousand men*. The singular also is sometimes used as a noun in the nominative or accusative with a dependent genitive: as, **mille hominum mīsit**, *he sent a thousand men*; rarely in other cases, unless connected with the same case of **millia**: as, **cum octō millibus peditum, mille equitum**, *with eight thousand foot and a thousand horse*.

226. Ordinals and distributives are declined like **bonus**, the latter, with few exceptions, only in the plural. Distributives often have **-um** for **-ōrum** in the genitive plural.

ADJECTIVES DERIVED FROM NUMERALS

227. *Multiplicatives*: as, **simplex**, *single*; **duplex**, *double*; **decemplex**, *tenfold*.

Proportionals: as, **duplus**, *twice as great*; **tripplus**, *three times as great*.

Partitives: as, **bīnārius**, *having two parts*; **ternārius**, *having three parts*.

These are declined like other adjectives of the same endings.

NUMERAL ADVERBS

228. Numeral Adverbs answer the question, *How many times?*

1. semel , <i>once</i>	12. duodeciēs	21. { viciēs semel semel et viciēs
2. bis , <i>twice</i>	13. terdecīēs	
3. ter	14. quater decīēs	30. triciēs
4. quater	15. quīndeciēs	40. quadrāgiēs
5. quīnquiēs	16. sēdecīēs	50. quīnquāgiēs
6. sexiēs	17. septiēs decīēs	60. sexāgiēs
7. septiēs	18. { octiēs decīēs duōdēviciēs	70. sēptuāgies
8. octiēs		80. octōgiēs
9. noviēs	19. { noviēs decīēs ūndēviciēs	90. nōnāgiēs
10. decīēs		100. centiēs
11. ūndeciēs	20. viciēs	1000. milliēs

The early ending **-iēs** appears often in later Latin.

The accusative singular neuter of the ordinals is sometimes used as a numeral adverb: as, **primum**, *for the first time* (also the ablative, **prīmō**, *at first*); **cōsul tertium**, *consul for the third time*.

PRONOUNS

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

229. The Personal Pronouns of the first and second persons are declined as follows: —

	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nom.	ego , <i>I</i>	nōs , <i>we</i>	tū , <i>you</i>	vōs , <i>you</i>
Gen.	meī	nostrum , nostrī	tuī	vestrum , vestrī
Dat.	mihi , mī	nōbīs	tibi	vōbīs
Acc.	mē	nōs	tē	vōs
Abl.	mē	nōbīs	tē	vōbīs

230. There is no personal pronoun of the third person. There is, however, a Reflexive Pronoun of the third person, which is declined as follows: —

Gen.	suī , <i>of himself, herself, itself, themselves</i>
Dat.	sibi , <i>to</i> “ “ “ “
Acc.	sē , “ “ “ “
Abl.	sē , <i>by</i> “ “ “ “

Case-Forms

231. **Tūte** and **tūtemet** (or **tūtimet**) are emphatic forms of **tū**.

The forms of the genitive singular and plural were originally genitives of the possessive adjectives; — **meī**, **tuī**, **suī**, **nostrī**, and **vestrī**, the genitive singular neuter; **nostrum** and **vestrum**, the genitive plural masculine or neuter.

Old forms of the genitive singular are **mīs** and **tīs**. The old forms **mihi** and **tibi** with final **ī** occur often in poetry.

Mēd, **tēd**, and **sēd** occur for both accusative and ablative singular. This is an original form of the ablative; as an accusative, it came to be used on the analogy of the ablative. Reduplicated forms are common in the same cases: — **mēmē**, **tētē**, **sēsē** by **Mēte** and **sēte** are found rarely.

Vostrum and **vestri** for **vestrum** and **vestri** occur in early and late Latin.

All forms except the genitive plural may be made more emphatic by adding **-met**: as, **egomet**.

RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

232. The Relative Pronoun **quī**, *who, which*, and the Interrogative Pronoun **quis**, *who?* **quid**, *what?* are declined as follows:—

	Singular			Plural		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	quī	quae	quod	quī	quae	quae
Gen.	cūius	cūius	cūius	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
Dat.	cui	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc.	quem	quam	quod	quōs	quās	quae
Abl.	quō	quā	quō	quibus	quibus	quibus
	M. & F.			N.		
Nom.	quis			quid		
Gen.	cūius			cūius		
Dat.	cui			cui		
Acc.	quem			quid		
Abl.	quō			quō		

The plural of the interrogative is the same as that of the relative.

The stem of these pronouns is **qui-** or **quo-** for the masculine and neuter, **quā-** for the feminine; only **quis**, **quid**, **quibus**, the ablative **quī**, and the rare nominative plural **quēs** come from the stem **qui-**; **quem** is formed on the analogy of consonant-stems.

233. The Interrogative Adjective **quī**, **quae**, **quod**, has the same forms as the relative pronoun: as, **quī homō est?** *what man is it?* **quod mare vīsit?** *what sea did he visit?*

Case-Forms

234. In early Latin **quae** is found a few times as a nominative singular feminine of the interrogative pronoun.

Quōdus and **quoi** for the genitive and dative singular are found even as late as Cicero's time.

Quī often occurs as an ablative of either number and of any gender, and is used commonly as an adverb meaning *how*.

Quēs is an early and rare form of the nominative plural. **Quīs** for **quibus** (dative and ablative plural) is found even in classical Latin.

Quis and **quī** (the interrogative adjective) are sometimes emphasized by the addition of **-nam**, — **quisnam**, **quīnam**.

235. Other Relative and Interrogative Pronouns are:—**uter**, *which of two*; used both as relative and interrogative; for the declension see **176**.

utercumque, *whichever of two*; an indefinite relative.

quicumque and **quisquis**, *whoever*; indefinite relatives. The two parts of **quicumque** (**quī** + **cumque**) are sometimes separated by an intervening word. Both parts of **quisquis** are declined, but only **quisquis**, **quidquid** (or **quicquid**), and **quōquō** are in common use.

ecquis (adjective, **ecquī**), *any one*; an interrogative.

236. There are also the following Pronominal Adjectives, used as Relatives and Interrogatives:—**quot**, *how many* (indeclinable); **quantus**, *how large*; and **quālis**, *of what sort*. With these are correlative the Demonstratives:—**tot**, *so many* (indeclinable); **tantus**, *so large*; and **tālis**, *such*.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

237. The principal Indefinite Pronouns are **quis**, *any one* (substantive), and **quī**, *any* (adjective).

These are declined like the interrogative and relative pronouns, but commonly have **qua** for **quae** except in the nominative plural feminine. **Quis** is regularly used as the nominative singular of the substantive for both masculine and feminine genders.

The Indefinites have the same early and occasional forms as the relative and interrogative; see **234**.

238. The compounds of the Indefinites **quis** and **quī** are as follows; the nominative singular masculine is the same for substantive and adjective, and **quid** appears in the neuter singular substantive, **quod** in the adjective, except where it is otherwise stated: —

quispiam, *some one*; neuter singular (substantive), **quippiam** or **quidpiam**.

quisquam, *any one*; neuter singular (substantive and adjective), **quicquam**. There are no feminine forms; **quisquam** and **quemquam** are used rarely in early Latin as feminines. There is no plural. **Ūllus** commonly takes the place of this word as an adjective.

quisque, *each one*.

ūnusquisque, *each one individually*. Both parts are declined.

aliquis, *some one*; **aliquī** is sometimes used as the nominative singular masculine of the substantive and usually as the nominative singular masculine of the adjective. The nominative singular feminine nearly always, and the nominative and accusative neuter plural always, is **aliqua**.

quīdam, *a certain one*; **m** is changed to **n** before **d**: as, **quendam**, **quōrundam**.

quīlibet and **quīvis**, *any one*.

For the Indefinite Relatives see **235**.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

239. Demonstrative Pronouns are used either alone as substantives, or with nouns as adjectives.

hic, <i>this</i>			ille, <i>that</i>			
			Singular			
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	hic	haec	hoc	ille	illa	illud
Gen.	hūius	hūius	hūius	illius	illius	illius
Dat.	huic	huic	huic	illi	illi	illi
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hoc	illum	illam	illud
Abl.	hōc	hāc	hōc	illō	illā	illō

Plural

Nom.	hī	hae	haec	illī	illae	illa
Gen.	hōrum	hārum	hōrum	illōrum	illārum	illōrum
Dat.	hīs	hīs	hīs	illis	illis	illis
Acc.	hōs	hās	haec	illōs	illās	illa
Abl.	hīs	hīs	hīs	illis	illis	illis

240. The stems of **hic** are **ho-** and **hā-**, to which in some forms is added the demonstrative enclitic **-ce**, which usually loses its vowel. The enclitic is sometimes attached to forms which are used regularly without it: as, **hūiusce**; **haec** (nominative plural feminine); **hōrunc** (in early Latin). It is found also (with **e** weakened to **i**) in combination with the interrogative enclitic **-ne**: as, **hocine**.

241. The nominative and accusative neuter singular is a long syllable (though the vowel is short) because the vowel was originally followed by two consonants (**hoc** for **hocc**, from **hod-ce**).

The early forms **hōius** and **hoic** were used even in Cicero's time. A nominative plural masculine **hīsce** occurs in early Latin.

242. Forms of an early pronoun **olle**, having the same meaning as **ille**, are sometimes found.

243. **Iste**, *that*, is declined like **ille**. The initial **i** is sometimes omitted.

244. The enclitic **-ce** is often attached to **ille** and **iste**, chiefly in the following forms:—

Singular

	M.	F.	N.		M.	F.	N.
Nom.	illic	illaec	illuc (illoc)	istic	istaec	istuc (istoc)	
Acc.	illunc	illanc	illuc (illoc)	istunc	istanc	istuc (istoc)	
Abl.	illōc	illāc	illōc	istōc	istāc	istōc	

Also in the nominative and accusative neuter plural, **illaec** and **istaec**.

245. The Intensive Pronoun **ipse**, *self*, is declined like **ille**, except that it has **ipsum** in the nominative and accusative singular neuter. **Ipse** is a combination of the demonstrative

is and the suffix **-pse**. The first part was originally declined; **eapse**, **eumpse**, and other similar forms occur in Plautus. In Plautus also are found forms with both parts declined: **as**, **eapsa**, **eampsam**. The nominative singular masculine is sometimes **ipsus**.

246.

is, this or that

Singular			Plural		
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom. is	ea	id	iī (ī) eī	eae	ea
Gen. ēius	ēius	ēius	eōrum	eārum	eōrum
Dat. eī	eī	eī	iīs (īs) eīs	iīs (īs) eīs	iīs (īs) eīs
Acc. eum	eam	id	eōs	eās	ea
Abl. eō	eā	eō	iīs (īs) eīs	iīs (īs) eīs	iīs (īs) eīs

247. There are three stems, — **i-** for **is** and **id**, **eo-** and **eā-** for the other forms.

Dative singular forms of early poetry are **ēī** and monosyllabic **ei**; also **eae**.

The usual forms of the nominative plural masculine and the dative and ablative plural are **iī** and **iīs**, but these were pronounced (and sometimes written) as monosyllables, **ī** and **īs**. The forms **eī** and **eīs** were usually pronounced as monosyllables.

248.

īdem, the same

Singular

M.	F.	N.
N. īdem	eadem	īdem
G. ēiusdem	ēiusdem	ēiusdem
D. eīdem	eīdem	eīdem
A. eundem	eandem	īdem
A. eōdem	eādem	eōdem

Plural

N. īdem (iīdem) eīdem	eaedem	eadem
G. eōrundem	eārundem	eōrundem
D. īdem (iīdem) eīdem	īdem (iīdem) eīdem	īdem (iīdem) eīdem
A. eōsdem	eāsdem	eadem
A. īdem (iīdem) eīdem	īdem (iīdem) eīdem	īdem (iīdem) eīdem

īdem is a compound of **is** and the suffix **-dem**.

Rare forms of the nominative singular masculine are **eisdem**, **isdem**, and **eidem**.

The nominative plural masculine and the dative and ablative plural, though sometimes written **iidem** and **iisdem**, were always dissyllabic in pronunciation.

VERBS

FORMATION OF VERBS

249. Verbs are either Primary or Derivative. Primary Verbs were inherited from the parent language. Derivative Verbs were formed from Latin words after Latin had become a distinct language.

Primary Verbs

Of Primary Verbs there are the two following classes:—

250. Root Verbs. Only a few forms of certain so-called *irregular* verbs belong to this class. In these forms personal endings are attached directly to the root: as, from the root **es**, *to be*, **es-t**, **es-te**; from the root **ī**, *to go*, **ī-s**, **ī-mus**; from the root **da**, *to give*, **da-t**, **da-nt**; from the root **fer**, *to bear*, **fer-s**, **fer-t**.

251. Thematic Verbs. In these verbs a vowel, called the Thematic Vowel, is attached to the root. To this combination are added the personal endings of the present system. The thematic vowel was originally **e** or **o**, but usually appears in Latin as **i** or **u**: as, from the root **ag-**, *to drive*, **ag-i-t**, **ag-i-mus**, **ag-u-nt**. The root may appear in a modified form: as, **gerō**, from the root **ges-**; **frangō**, from the root **frag-**. To this class belong most verbs of the third conjugation. There are, however, many derivative verbs of the third conjugation, and these also have the thematic vowel.

252. Most verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations are derivative, but a few are primary. In either case the personal endings of the indicative present are attached to a final

vowel which belongs to the present stem. The present stem may be identical with the root, as in **dare**, *to give* (root and stem **da-**), **flēre**, *to weep* (root and stem **flē-**); or it may be the root with an added vowel, as in **vidēre**, *to see* (root **vid-**, stem **vidē-**), **venīre**, *to come* (root **ven-**, stem **venī-**).

Derivative Verbs

Of Derivative Verbs there are the two following classes: —

253. Denominative Verbs, formed from nouns or adjectives. Most of these are of the first conjugation, but there are many of the fourth, some of the second, and a few of the third. In general the **ā**-declension produces verbs of the first conjugation, the **o**-declension verbs of the second conjugation, the **u**-declension verbs of the third conjugation with the infinitive in **-uere**, and the **i**-declension verbs of the fourth conjugation; but there are many exceptions: —

fugāre, *to put to flight*, from **fuga**, *flight*.

albēre, *to be white*, from **albus**, *white*.

metuere, *to fear*, from **metus**, *fear*.

finīre, *to end*, from **finis**, *end*.

254. Verbs derived from other verbs. Of these there are five classes: —

255. (1) Iteratives or Intensives, of the first conjugation, regularly derived from the stem of the perfect passive participle (therefore *denominative* in origin), and ending in the indicative present in **-tō** or **-sō**. Those derived from verbs of the first conjugation, however, always end in **-itō**, not **-ātō**. There sometimes appears to be no iterative or intensive force, the meaning of the derivative being apparently the same as that of the simple verb: —

dictō, *say often or emphatically*, from **dicō**, *say*.

prēnsō, *grasp*, from **prēndō**, *take hold of*.

rogitō, *keep asking*, from **rogō**, *ask*.

The iterative ending is sometimes added to the present stem: as, **agitō**, *move violently*, from **agō**; **noscitō**, *recognize*, from **nōscō**.

A second iterative is sometimes formed: as, *dictitō*, from *dictō*; *cursitō*, from *cursō*.

256. (2) *Intensives*, of the third conjugation, ending in *-essō* or *-issō*. The perfect and participial systems are usually of the fourth conjugation:—

capessō, *seize*, from *capiō*, *take*.

petessō or *petissō*, *seek eagerly*, from *petō*, *seek*.

lacessō, *provoke*, from *laciō*, *entice*.

incipissō, *begin eagerly*, from *incipiō*, *begin*.

257. (3) *Inceptives*, of the third conjugation, formed by adding the ending *-scō* to roots or to the present stem of verbs. In some cases the original verb, if there was one, has gone out of use. The name Inceptive sometimes indicates only the form, not the meaning, as many of these verbs, especially those formed from roots or obsolete verbs, do not denote the beginning of an action or condition; e.g. *pāscō*, *feed*; *quiēscō*, *rest*; *poscō*, *demand*. Examples with real inceptive meaning are:—

calēscō, *grow warm*, from *caleō*, *be warm*.

sciēscō, *inquire*, from *sciō*, *know*.

horrēscō, *begin to shudder*, from *horreō*, *shudder*.

The endings *-āscō* and *-ēscō*, of which the first vowels are really stem-vowels, came to be regarded as suffixes and were attached to noun and adjective stems: as,

vesperāscit, *it becomes evening*; *vesper*, *evening*.

mitēscō, *grow mild*; *mītis*, *mild*.

Inceptives have only the present system of tenses, but the perfect and participial systems are often supplied by the simple verb from which the Inceptive is derived.

258. (4) *Diminutives*, of the first conjugation, ending in *-illō*. These are rare:—

cantillō, *chirp*, from *cantō*, *sing*.

cōnscrībīllō, *scribble*, from *cōnscrībō*, *write*.

259. (5) *Desideratives*, of the fourth conjugation, ending in *-turiō* or *-suriō*. Only two are in common use:—

parturiō, *be in labor*, from *pariō*, *bring forth*.

esuriō, *be hungry*, from *edō*, *eat*.

Verbs formed by Composition

260. Verbs are formed also by *Composition*; that is, by the combination of an adverbial prefix with a verb.

Some of these prefixes are used separately as adverbs or prepositions, others appear only in composition.

Those used separately are:—

ā-, ab-, abs-, away	in-, in	prō-, pro-, prōd-, forward
ad-, to	inter-, between	retrō-, back
ante-, before	ob-, toward, against	sub-, subs-, under
circum-, around	per-, through, thoroughly	subter-, beneath
com-, con-, together	post-, after	super-, over
dē-, away, down	prae-, before	suprā-, over
ē-, ex-, out	praeter-, past	trāns-, across

Those used only in composition are:—

amb-, am-, an-, around	intrō-, within	re-, red-, back
dis-, dī-, apart	por-, forward	sē-, sēd-, apart

For vowel changes occurring in the composition of verbs see 34ff.

261. Some verbs are formed by the combination of words not regularly used as prefixes, with simple verbs. These are called Syntactic Compounds:—

animadvertō, attend to (animum advertō).

benedicō, bless.

manūmittō, set free.

satisfaciō, do enough.

In compounds like **calefaciō, heat**, and **cōnsuefaciō, habituate**, the first part was probably a formerly existing noun-stem, but was treated as a verbal stem in -ē.

VERB-STEMS

262. The root of a verb is modified to serve as a basis for the various forms. In this way three stems are formed,—the Present, Perfect, and Participial.

The *Present Stem* is the basis of the following forms:—

Present, Imperfect, and Future tenses in both voices and in all moods in which these tenses are found.

Present Infinitive in both voices.

Present Active and Future Passive Participles.

Gerund.

The *Perfect Stem* is the basis of the following forms:—

Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative Active;

Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive Active.

Perfect Infinitive Active.

The *Participial Stem* is the basis of the following forms:—

Perfect Passive Participle and, therefore, all forms of which this is a part, — namely, the Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative Passive, the Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive Passive, the Perfect Infinitive Passive.

Future Active Participle and, therefore, the Future Active Infinitive.

Supine and, therefore, the Future Passive Infinitive.

263. Every form of the Indicative and Subjunctive (except the present indicative and the perfect passive system) consists of three parts, — stem, mood and tense sign, and personal ending.

264. The Imperative has no mood and tense signs. Personal endings are attached directly to the stem, except that the thematic vowel appears in the third conjugation, in the third person plural of *-iō* verbs of the third conjugation, and in the third person plural of the fourth conjugation.

THE CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

265. The inflection of the verb by which are expressed Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person is called Conjugation.

There are four conjugations, distinguished by the vowel of the present stem. The Present Active Infinitive most conveniently indicates the conjugation; the infinitive endings of the four conjugations are respec-

tively **-āre**, **-ēre**, **-ere**, and **-ire**. The present stem may be found by dropping the infinitive ending **-re**.

266. First Conjugation. Stem-vowel, ā.

Most verbs of this conjugation are denominative, but there are some primary verbs: as, **stō**, *stand*, **nō**, *swim*. Some primary verbs of this conjugation originally had a stem in **ā**: as, **domō**, *subdue*; perfect, **domuī** (for **domavī**); supine, **domitum** (for **domatum**).

267. Second Conjugation. Stem-vowel, ē.

This conjugation includes both primary and denominative verbs. The stem-vowel **ē** usually appears in the present system only; but it appears in all forms of certain verbs with roots ending in **ē**: as, **fleō**, *weep*, **neō**, *spin*. The stem-vowel is shortened before another vowel.

268. Third Conjugation. Stem-vowel, e or o, changed in most forms to i or u.

The stem-vowel is the *thematic vowel*. The present stem may be simply a root with the thematic vowel, as in **dicō**, *say*; or the root may be modified in various ways, as follows:—

1. Present in **-iō**: as, **faciō**, *make, do*; $\sqrt{\text{fac}}$.
2. Present in **-scō**: as, **crēscō**, *grow*; $\sqrt{\text{crē}}$. (See 257.)
3. Present in **-essō**: as, **capessō**, *seize*; $\sqrt{\text{cap}}$. (See 256.)
4. Present in **-tō**: as, **flectō**, *bend*; $\sqrt{\text{flec}}$.
5. Present in **-nō**: as, **sternō**, *strew*; $\sqrt{\text{strā}}$.
6. Present with inserted nasal: as, **rumpō**, *break*; $\sqrt{\text{rup}}$.

The nasal sometimes appears also in the perfect and participial systems: as, **iungō**, *join*; $\sqrt{\text{iug}}$; perfect, **iūnxī**; participle, **iūctus**.

7. Reduplicated: as, **sistō**, *set*; $\sqrt{\text{sta}}$.

269. Fourth Conjugation. Stem-vowel, ī.

Verbs of this conjugation are either primary or denominative. In the primary verbs the **ī** usually appears in the present system only: as, **veniō**, *come* (**venī**, **ventum**); in the denominative verbs

it appears also in the perfect and participial systems: as, **finiō**, *finish* (**finīvī**, **finītum**). The stem-vowel **i** becomes **ī** before another vowel.

270. A few verbs have forms of two conjugations. **Lavō**, *wash*, has forms of the first and the third. A few verbs of the third conjugation have occasional forms of the fourth: as, **orirētur** or **orerētur**, and **orīrī**, from **orior**, *arise*; **potirētur** or **poterētur**, and **potīrī**, from **potior**, *get possession of*; **morīrī** or **morī**, from **morior**, *die*.

In certain verbs the perfect system or the participial system, or both, belong to a conjugation different from that of the present system: as, **petō**, *aim at*, **quaerō**, *seek*, **hauriō**, *drain*, **vinciō**, *bind*.

271. The term Irregular is applied to certain verbs which, though in large part regular, have some forms made by adding the personal endings directly to the root. (See **251**.) The irregular verbs are **sum**, **possum**, **volō**, **nōlō**, **mālō**, **ferō**, **eō**, **queō**, **fiō**, **edō**, and **dō**.

VOICE

272. There are two voices, Active and Passive.

Deponent Verbs

273. Certain verbs, called Deponents, have a complete passive system only, but with the meanings of the active. In addition to the passive forms they have also the future infinitive active (the future infinitive passive is not used), the present and future participles active, the gerund, and the supine. The future passive participle and, sometimes, the perfect passive participle are passive in meaning.

Some verbs are used either as active verbs or as deponents: as, **assentiō** or **assentior**, *agree*; **populō** or **populor**, *pillage*.

274. A few verbs, called Semi-Deponent, have active forms in the present system, passive forms with active meanings in the perfect and participial systems. These are **audeō**, *dare*, **fīdō**, *trust* (and its compounds **cōnfīdō**, *trust*, **diffīdō**, *distrust*), **gaudeō**, *rejoice*, **soleō**, *be accustomed*.

MOODS AND TENSES

275. There are three Moods, — Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative.

Indicative Mood

276. The Indicative Mood has six tenses, — the Present, Imperfect, Future, Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect.

277. The Present has no tense-sign; the personal endings are added directly to the present stem. For vowel changes see **315**.

278. The tense-sign of the Imperfect is **-bā-**, the vowel being shortened before the personal endings **-m**, **-t**, **-nt**, and **-r**. In the third and fourth conjugations the stem-form to which this is attached ends in **-ē-**: as, **regē-ba-m**, **capiē-ba-m**, **audiē-ba-m**. In the fourth conjugation in earlier Latin, and in poetry of all periods, this **ē** is sometimes omitted: as, **scībam**, for **sciēbam**.

279. The tense-sign of the Future in the first and second conjugations is **-b-** and the thematic vowel, — that is, **e** or **o**, changed, except in the first person singular, to **i** or **u**. The tense-sign of the Future in the third and fourth conjugations is **-ā-** in the first person singular (shortened because it is followed by **m** or **r**), **-ē-** in all other forms (shortened before **-t** and **-nt**). In early Latin the fourth conjugation sometimes has a future like that of the first and second: as, **audībō**, for **audiam**. The regular future of **eō**, *go*, is **ībō**.

280. The Perfect is formed in various ways. Rarely the stem is the same as that of the present: as, **solvī**, from **solvō**, *loose*; **vertī**, from **vertō**, *turn*. Sometimes it is different only by the lengthening or change of the vowel: as, **fūgī**, from **fugiō**, *flee*; **vēnī**, from **veniō**, *come*; **ēgī**, from **agō**, *drive*. The commonest tense-sign is **-v-**. This appears in the form **-āv-** in nearly all the verbs of the first conjugation, and in the form **-iv-** in nearly all of the fourth: as, **amāvī**, **audīvī**. The sign

-v- appears also in the perfect of some verbs of the second and third conjugations: as, **dēlēvī**, from **dēleō**, *destroy*; **nōvī**, from **nōscō**, *learn*. Five verbs of the third conjugation with nasal suffix have the perfect in **-vī**; these are **cernō**, **linō**, **sinō**, **spernō**, and **sternō**.

281. In verbs of this class with perfects in **-āvī** and **-ēvī** there are often shortened forms in all the tenses of the perfect system, **v** and the following vowel disappearing before **s** or **r**: as, **amāstī**, for **amāvistī**; **cōnsuērat**, for **cōnsuēverat**; in the subjunctive, **amārim**, for **amāverim**; **cōnsuēssem**, for **cōnsuēvissem**; in the infinitive, **amāsse**, for **amāvisse**.

Perfects in **-īvī** also have shortened forms, but the vowel disappears only before **s**, not before **r**: as, **audistī**, for **audivistī**; **audiērunt**, for **audivērunt**.

The perfect forms of **nōscō** are similarly shortened: as, **nōsse**, for **nōvisse**; also compounds of **moveō**: as, **commōssem**, for **commōvissem**.

282. Some verbs with perfects in **-īvī** have also forms in **-iī**, **-iit**, in the first and third persons singular: as, **audiī**, **audiit**; **iī**, **iit**, from **eō**. Rarely there is a first person plural in **-iimus**: as, **audiimus**.

283. Another common tense-sign of the perfect is **-u-**. This appears in most verbs of the second conjugation, in many of the third, in a few primary verbs of the first (see **266**), and very rarely in the fourth: as, **monuī**, **aluī**, **sonuī**, **saluī** (from **salīō**).

284. Another common tense-sign of the perfect is **-s-**. This appears, especially with mute stems, in many verbs of the third conjugation, in some of the second, and in a very few of the fourth: as, **carpsī**, **auxī**, **sēnsī**. For consonant changes due to the combination of the final consonant of a root with **s**, see **49**. The vowel of the root generally remains the same as in the present, but there is occasional variation: as, **cessī**, from **cēdō**; **mīsī**, from **mittō**; **rēxī**, from **regō**; **flūxī**, from **fluō**; **ussī**, from **ūrō**.

285. Some perfects have *reduplication*, — that is, a prefix consisting of the initial consonant of the root and the vowel **e**: as, **cecidī**, from **cadō**; **cecinī**, from **canō**; **populī**, from **pellō**. A stem-vowel **a** is weakened to **i** or **e**; **ae** to **i**. If the stem-vowel of both present and perfect is **i**, **o**, or **u**, that vowel appears in the reduplication: as, **didicī**, from **discō**; **poposci**, from **poscō**; **cucurrī**, from **currō**. If the verb begins with **sp** or **st**, both consonants appear in the reduplication, but **s** disappears from the root: as, **spondī**, from **spondeō**; **stetī**, from **stō**.

Reduplication occurs, with a few exceptions, only in the third conjugation. It is found in four verbs of the second, — **mordeō**, **pendeō**, **spondeō**, **tondeō**, — and in two of the first, — **dō** and **stō**. Reduplication does not occur in compounds, except in compounds of **dō**, **stō**, **discō**, **poscō**, and **sistō**: as, **abdidī**, **circumdedī**; **cecidī** from **caedō**, but **occidī** from **occidō**; it occurs also in **repperī** (for **repeperi**), **rettulī** (for **retetuli**) and sometimes in compounds of **currō**.

286. The Perfect Passive and all other passive tenses of the perfect system, — that is, the pluperfect and future perfect indicative, the perfect and pluperfect subjunctive, and the perfect infinitive, — are made by a combination of the perfect passive participle with forms of the present system of the verb **esse**, *to be*: as, **amātus sum**, *I have been loved*; **amatus esse**, *to have been loved*. But forms of the perfect system of **esse** are sometimes used: as, **amātus fui**, for **amātus sum**; **amātus fuerat**, for **amātus erat**.

287. The tense-sign of the Pluperfect is **-erā-**, which is attached to the perfect stem; **ā** is shortened before final **m**, **t**, and **nt**.

288. The tense-sign of the Future Perfect is **-er-**, followed by the thematic vowel; this is attached to the perfect stem. The forms of this tense are similar to those of the Perfect Subjunctive, and the occasional forms of the second person singular and the first and second persons plural with **-ī-**, that is, **-īs**, **-īmus**, and **-ītis**, are due to confusion with the perfect subjunctive, where **-ī-** is original. The regular ending of the third

person plural, **-int** instead of **-unt**, is a mere imitation of the corresponding form of the perfect subjunctive.

289. In early Latin (and rarely in later writers) the future perfect indicative sometimes has the ending **-sō** (or **-ssō**), the perfect subjunctive **-sim** (or **-ssim**): as, **capsō**, from **capiō**; **amāssō**, from **amō**; **faxim**, from **faciō**; **negāssim**, from **negō**. These are forms of an earlier system of conjugation. Forms of the perfect indicative, pluperfect subjunctive, and perfect infinitive, belonging to this same system, are found, especially in early Latin: as, **dixī**, for **dixistī**; **dixem** for **dixissem**; **dixe** for **dixisse**.

Subjunctive Mood

290. The Subjunctive Mood has four tenses, — Present, Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect.

291. The tense-sign of the Present is for the first conjugation **-ē-** (representing a form of the old optative mood-sign), the stem-vowel **ā** disappearing before the other vowel. For the other conjugations the tense-sign is **-ā-**. Both **ē** and **ā** are shortened, as usual, before final **m**, **t**, **nt**, and **r**. The long stem-vowel of the second and fourth conjugations is shortened, and in the third conjugation the thematic vowel does not appear in this tense. Some irregular verbs have the tense-sign **-ī-**, the usual mood-sign of the old optative; in this way are formed the present subjunctive of **sum**, of **volō** and its compounds, and occasional forms like **duim** (from **dō**), **edim**, etc.

292. The tense-sign of the Imperfect is **-sē-**, which is added to the present stem, **s** becoming **r** between two vowels (see **46**): as, **es-sē-s**, **amā-rē-s**.

293. The tense-sign of the Perfect is **-erī-**, which is added to the perfect stem. Confusion with the future perfect indicative often shortens **-is** to **-is** in the second person singular and, rarely, **-imus** to **-imus** in the first person plural.

294. The tense-sign of the Pluperfect is **-issē-**, which is added to the perfect stem.

In all forms a long vowel is shortened before final **m**, **t**, **nt**, and **r**.

For the forms of the Imperative Mood see **264**.

VERBAL NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

295. Besides the forms of the three moods, certain noun and adjective forms are treated as parts of the verb. These are the Infinitives, the Supines, and the Gerund, which are verbal nouns, and the Participles, which are verbal adjectives.

Infinitives

296. There are six Infinitives, — the Present, Perfect, and Future for each voice.

297. The ending of the Present Active Infinitive is **-se**, which is attached to the present stem. This ending appears only in **esse**, *to be*, **ēsse**, *to eat*, and their compounds. In other verbs it comes between two vowels and is changed to **r**: as, **amāre** for **amāse**. (**Ferre** and **velle** stand for **ferse** and **velse**.)

298. The ending of the Perfect Active Infinitive is **-isse**, which is attached to the perfect stem: as, **amāv-isse**.

299. The ending of the Present Passive Infinitive is **-rī**, except in the third conjugation where it is **-ī**: as, **amā-rī**, **monē-rī**, **audi-rī**; but **reg-ī**. This infinitive is sometimes extended by the addition of the syllable **-er**, with shortening of the preceding vowel: as, **amārier**, **dicier**.

300. The three other infinitives are formed by combination as follows: —

The Future Active is the future active participle with **esse**: as, **amātūrus esse**. The Perfect Passive is the perfect passive participle with **esse**: as, **amātus esse**. But in the Future Active and Perfect Passive Infinitives **esse** is often omitted: as **amātūrus** for **amātūrus esse**; **amātus** for **amātus esse**. The Future Passive is the Supine in **-um** with **īrī**, the present passive infinitive of **ēō**, *go*, used impersonally: as, **amātum īrī**.

Supine

301. The Supine is a verbal noun of the fourth declension, formed from the participial stem, but with the suffix **-tu-**, not **-to-**. There are only two forms in common use, — the accusative, and the dative or ablative singular: as, **amātum**, **amātū**. There is a rare dative in **-uī**.

Gerund

302. The Gerund is the neuter singular of the Future Passive Participle (Gerundive), used as a verbal noun of the second declension, with genitive, dative, accusative, and ablative cases. The meaning is the same as that of the English verbal noun in **-ing**: as, **regendī causā**, *for the sake of ruling*.

Participles

303. There are four Participles, — the Present and the Future Active, the Perfect and the Future Passive.

304. The Present Active Participle is formed by adding the suffix **-nt-** (nominative singular **-ns**) to the present stem, the long stem-vowels of the first, second, and fourth conjugations being shortened except in the nominative singular. The thematic vowel of the third conjugation appears as **e**; in the fourth conjugation the same form of the stem is used as in the imperfect indicative. The Present Active Participle is declined as an adjective of the third declension and has the meaning of the English participle in **-ing**.

305. The Future Active Participle is formed with the suffix **-ūro-** (nominative singular masculine, **-ūrus**) added regularly to the participial stem with omission of final **-o**: as, **amātūrus**, **monitūrus**, **rēctūrus**, **cursūrus**. There is, however, occasional variation: as, **moritūrus**, **oritūrus**, **ruitūrus**. The Future Active Participle is declined as an adjective of the first and second declensions and denotes what is *about to happen*.

306. The Perfect Passive Participle is formed with the suffix **-to-**, often changed to **-so-** (nominative singular masculine, **-tus** or **-sus**). There is great variety in the stem-forms to which this suffix is attached. Some verbs, especially those of the second and third conjugations, add **-tus** or **-sus** directly to the root-syllable (with the usual consonant changes): as, **auctus**, from **augeō**; **suāsus**, from **suādeō**; **factus**, from **faciō**; **sparsus**, from **spargō**. Most first-conjugation verbs have the participle in **-ātus**, fourth-conjugation verbs in **-ītus**. An exception in the first conjugation is **pōtus**, from **pōtō**; in the fourth, **sepultus**, from **sepeliō**. Verbs in **-uō** have the participle in **-ūtus**; so also **locūtus**, from **loquor**, and **secūtus**, from **sequor**. Verbs with the perfect in **-uī** regularly have the participle in **-itus**: as, **domitus**, **monitus**, **genitus**; but there are exceptions; as, **sectus**, **doctus**, **cultus**. The quantity of the root-vowel is generally the same as in the present, but there is occasional variation.

The suffix **-so-** (nominative **-sus**) is regularly used with all roots ending in a dental, the dental being assimilated to the following **s**: as, **fossus** from **fodiō**; but **ss** is reduced to **s** after a long syllable: as, **clausus** from **claudō**. Many other verbs by analogy take the suffix **-so-**: as, **mersus**, from **mergō**; **pulsus**, from **pellō**; **cursus**, from **currō**.

The Perfect Passive Participle is declined as an adjective of the first and second declensions and has the meaning of the English perfect passive participle. It is used also with forms of **esse**, *to be*, to form the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect tenses in the passive voice.

307. The Perfect Passive Participle of Deponent Verbs has usually an active but sometimes a passive meaning. The Perfect Passive Participle of other verbs seems sometimes to have an active meaning: as, **cēnātus**, *having dined*; **coniūrātus**, *conspiring*; **placitus**, *pleasing*; **pōtus**, *having drunk*.

308. The Future Passive Participle is formed with the suffix **-ndo-** (nominative singular masculine **-ndus**) added to

that form of the present stem which appears in the present active participle: as, **amandus**, **monendus**, **regendus**, **audendus**. The original suffix in the third and fourth conjugations was probably **-undo-**, and this is often found in early Latin; **eundum** is always the future passive participle of **eō**. The future passive participle is declined as an adjective of the first and second declensions.

TENSE-GROUPS

309. The tenses of the indicative and subjunctive are grouped as follows: —

Primary or Principal: —

Present	amō , <i>I love</i>
Future	amābō , <i>I shall love</i>
Present Perfect	amāvī , <i>I have loved</i>
Future Perfect	amāverō , <i>I shall have loved</i>

Secondary or Historical: —

Imperfect	amābam , <i>I was loving</i>
Historical Perfect	amāvī , <i>I loved</i>
Pluperfect	amāveram , <i>I had loved</i>

The perfect indicative, it should be noted, has two uses, — one (the present perfect) denoting action completed in present time, the other (the historical perfect) denoting past action.

In the subjunctive the present and perfect are primary tenses, the imperfect and pluperfect are secondary tenses. It should be noted that tenses of present and future time are primary, those of past time are secondary.

NUMBER

310. Verbs have two numbers, Singular and Plural.

PERSON

311. Verbs have three persons, — First, Second, and Third.

The personal endings of the indicative and subjunctive, except the perfect indicative active, are as follows:—

Person	Singular		Meaning
	Active	Passive	
First	-m or -ō	-r	<i>I</i>
Second	-s	-re or -ris	<i>you (sing.)</i>
Third	-t	-tur	<i>he, she, it</i>
Person	Plural		Meaning
	Active	Passive	
First	-mus	-mur	<i>we</i>
Second	-tis	-mini	<i>you (plu.)</i>
Third	-nt	-ntur	<i>they</i>

The ending -m of the first person singular appears in the indicative in two presents, *sum*, *I am*, and *inquam*, *I say*, in the imperfect, in futures in -am, and in the pluperfect, and in all tenses of the subjunctive. The ending -ō appears in all other present indicatives, in futures in -bō, and in the future perfect.

In the first person singular of the present indicative passive the ending -r is added, not to the stem, but to the corresponding active form with vowel shortened: as *amor*, from *amō*.

In the second person singular of the passive -re was the early ending but was gradually supplanted, especially in the present indicative, by -ris. In Cicero and Vergil -ris is more common in the present indicative, -re elsewhere.

312. The personal endings of the perfect indicative active are as follows:—

Person	Singular	Plural
First	-ī	-imus
Second	-istī	-istis
Third	-it	-ērunt or -ēre

In poetry -erunt, with short e, is sometimes found in the third person plural.

313. The personal endings of the Imperative are as follows:—

Person	Tense	Active		Passive	
		Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Second	Present	—	-te	-re	-mini
Second	Future	-tō	-tōte	-tor	—
Third	Future	-tō	-ntō	-tor	-ntor

The second person singular of the present is simply the present stem (in the third conjugation with the thematic vowel *e*): *as*, *amā*, *monē*, *rege*, *audī*. Verbs of the third conjugation in *-iō* lose *-i-* before the ending *-e*: *as*, *cape*.

There is no second person plural of the future imperative passive.

314. The imperatives of *dīcō*, *dūcō*, *faciō*, and *ferō* are *dīc*, *dūc*, *fac*, and *fer*, except in early Latin, where for the first three the longer forms, — *dīce*, *dūce*, and *face*, — are more common. The same statement applies to compounds of these verbs, except that compounds of *faciō* always have the longer form.

Deponents have rarely *-mino* instead of *-tor* in early Latin.

315. In the union of the personal endings with the stem or tense-sign certain vowel changes occur:—

A long vowel is shortened before the endings *-m*, *-t*, *-nt*, and *-r*: *as*, *amābam*, *amat*, *amet*, *amant*, *monet*, *audit*, *regar*. In early Latin and in poetry, however, the original long vowel before final *-t* is sometimes retained: *as*, *vidēt*.

In the first person singular of the present indicative active of the first conjugation, *ā* disappears by contraction before *ō*: *as*, *amō*; in the second and fourth conjugations the stem-vowel is shortened: *as*, *moneō*, *audiō*.

The thematic vowel of the third conjugation appears as *ō* in the first person singular of the present indicative active: *as*, *regō*; it appears as *e* before *r* (*regeris*), as *u* (earlier *o*) before *nt* (*regunt*), and as *i* before other endings (*regis*, *regit*, *regitur*). The early ending of the third person plural, *-ont*, was until the end of the republic retained after *u*, *v*, and *qu*: *as*, *ruont*, *vivont*, *sequontur*. Sometimes *qu* became *c*: *as*, *secuntur*.

In the second and third persons singular of the present indicative active of the third conjugation *i* is sometimes lengthened by the poets.

PRINCIPAL PARTS

316. The Principal Parts of a verb are four forms which show the Present Stem, the Conjugation, the Perfect Stem, and the Participial Stem. These are:—

(1) The First Person Singular of the Present Indicative Active.

(2) The Present Infinitive Active.

(3) The First Person Singular of the Perfect Indicative Active.

(4) The Nominative Singular Neuter of the Perfect Passive Participle.

The *neuter* of the participle is selected rather than the masculine, because in intransitive verbs the latter is lacking, while the former may be used impersonally. Moreover the neuter is identical with the supine and serves its purpose even if the participle is not found at all. If neither participle nor supine occurs, the future active participle is sometimes given as one of the principal parts.

So, for example, the principal parts of **amō**, *love*, and **maneō**, *remain* (intransitive), are:

amō, amāre, amāvī, amātum

maneō, manēre, mānsī, mānsum.

317. The Principal Parts of Deponent Verbs are the first person singular of the present indicative passive, the present infinitive passive, and the first person singular of the perfect indicative passive, as: **conor, conārī, conātus sum.**

CONJUGATION OF SUM

318. The irregular verb **sum**, *be*, is conjugated as follows. This verb is given first because it enters into the conjugation of other verbs.

Principal Parts

PRES. INDIC.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	FUT. PARTIC.
sum	esse	fuī	futūrus

Indicative

Present

Singular	Plural
sum, I am	sumus, we are
es, you (sing.) are	estis, you (plu.) are
est, he is	sunt, they are

Imperfect

Singular	Plural
eram, <i>I was</i>	erāmus, <i>we were</i>
erās, <i>you were</i>	erātis, <i>you were</i>
erat, <i>he was</i>	erant, <i>they were</i>

Future

erō, <i>I shall be</i>	erimus, <i>we shall be</i>
eris, <i>you will be</i>	eritis, <i>you will be</i>
erit, <i>he will be</i>	erunt, <i>they will be</i>

Perfect

fuī, <i>I have been, was</i>	fuius, <i>we have been, were</i>
fuistī, <i>you have been, were</i>	fuistis, <i>you have been, were</i>
fuit, <i>he has been, was</i>	fuērunt, fuēre, <i>they have been, were</i>

Pluperfect

fueram, <i>I had been</i>	fuerāmus, <i>we had been</i>
fuerās, <i>you had been</i>	fuerātis, <i>you had been</i>
fuerat, <i>he had been</i>	fuerant, <i>they had been</i>

Future Perfect

fuerō, <i>I shall have been</i>	fuerimus, <i>we shall have been</i>
fueris, <i>you will have been</i>	fueritis, <i>you will have been</i>
fuerit, <i>he will have been</i>	fuerint, <i>they will have been</i>

Subjunctive

Present

sim	sīmus
sīs	sītis
sit	sint

Imperfect

essem	essēmus
essēs	essētis
esset	essent

Perfect

fuerim	fuerīmus
fueris	fuerītis
fuerit	fuerint

Pluperfect

fuissem	fuissēmus
fuissēs	fuissētis
fuisset	fuissent

Imperative**Present****es, be** (sing.)**este, be** (plu.)**Future****estō, you shall be****estōte, you shall be****estō, he shall be****suntō, they shall be****Infinitives****Participle**Pres. **esse, to be**Perf. **fuisse, to have been**Fut. **futūrus esse, to be about to be** Fut. **futūrus, about to be**

The meanings of the Subjunctive are so numerous and varied that any single translation might be misleading; therefore none is given.

319. The various forms of this verb are made from two roots, one of which, **es**, serves as the present stem, the other, **fu**, as the perfect stem and as the basis of the participial stem.

Other forms of the verb in occasional use are:

Pres. Subj., **siem, siēs, siet, sient**; also, **fuam, fuās, fuat, fuant**.

Imperf. Subj., **forem, forēs, foret, forent**.

Fut. Inf., **fore**.

There is no present participle; a participial element appears, however, in the adjectives **absēns** and **praesēns**.

The following verbs are conjugated as models of the four regular conjugations: —

FIRST CONJUGATION**amō, love****320.****Principal Parts****amō****amāre****amāvī****amātum****ACTIVE VOICE****Indicative****Present****Singular****amō, I love****amās****amat****Plural****amāmus****amātis****amant**

capans

Cap.

Imperfect	
Singular	Plural
amābam, <i>I was loving, I loved</i>	amābāmus
amābās	amābātis
amābat	amābant
Future	
amābō, <i>I shall love</i>	amābimus
amābis	amābitis
amābit	amābunt
Perfect	
amāvī, <i>I have loved, I loved</i>	amāvimus
amāvistī	amāvistis
amāvit	amāvērunt or -re
Pluperfect	
amāveram, <i>I had loved</i>	amāverāmus
amāverās	amāverātis
amāverat	amāverant
Future Perfect	
amāverō, <i>I shall have loved</i>	amāverimus
amāveris	amāveritis
amāverit	amāverint

Subjunctive

Present		Imperfect	
amem	amēmus	amārem	amārēmus
amēs	amētis	amārēs	amārētis
amet	ament	amāret	amārent
Perfect		Pluperfect	
amāverim	amāverimus	amāvissem	amāvissēmus
amāveris	amāveritis	amāvissēs	amāvissētis
amāverit	amāverint	amāvisset	amāvissent

Imperative

Present	
amā, <i>love (sing.)</i>	amāte, <i>love (plu.)</i>
Future	
amātō, <i>you shall love</i>	amātōte, <i>you (plu.) shall love</i>
amātō, <i>he shall love</i>	amantō, <i>they shall love</i>

Infinitives		Participles	
Pres.	amāre, <i>to love</i>	Pres.	amāns, <i>loving</i>
Perf.	amāvisse, <i>to have loved</i>		
Fut.	amātūrus esse, <i>to be about to love</i>	Fut.	amātūrus, <i>about to love</i>
Gerund		Supine	
Gen.	amandī, <i>of loving</i>		
Dat.	amandō, <i>for loving</i>		
Acc.	amandum, <i>loving</i>	Acc.	amātum, <i>to love</i>
Abl.	amandō, <i>by loving</i>	Abl.	amātū, <i>to love</i>

321. PASSIVE VOICE

Indicative

Present

Singular	Plural
amor, <i>I am loved</i>	amāmur
amāris or -re	amāmini
amātur	amantur

Imperfect

amābar, <i>I was loved</i>	amābāmur
amābāris or -re	amābāmini
amābātur	amābantur

Future

amābor, <i>I shall be loved</i>	amābimur
amāberis or -re	amābimini
amābitur	amābuntur

Perfect

amātus sum, <i>I have been (or was) loved</i>	amātī sumus
amātus es	amātī estis
amātus est	amātī sunt

Pluperfect

amātus eram, <i>I had been loved</i>	amātī erāmus
amātus erās	amātī erātis
amātus erat	amātī erant

Singular		Future Perfect		Plural	
amātus	erō, <i>I shall have been loved</i>	amātus	eris	amātī	erimus
amātus	eris			amātī	eritis
amātus	erit			amātī	erunt
Subjunctive					
Present		Imperfect			
amer	amēmur	amārer	amārēmur		
amēris or -re	amēminī	amārēris, -re	amārēminī		
amētur	amentur	amārētur	amārentur		
Perfect		Pluperfect			
amātus	sīm amātī sīmus	amātus	essem amātī essēmus		
amātus	sīs amātī sitis	amātus	essēs amātī essētis		
amātus	sit amātī sint	amātus	esset amātī essent		

Imperative

Present

amāre, *be loved* (sing.) amāminī, *be loved* (plu.)

Future

amātor, *you shall be loved*

amātor, *he shall be loved* amantor, *they shall be loved*

Infinitives

Participles

Pres. amārī, *to be loved*

Perf. amātus esse, *to have been loved*

Perf. amātus, *having been loved*

Fut. amātum irī, *to be about to be loved*

Fut. amandus, *to be loved*

SECOND CONJUGATION

moneō, *advise*

322.

Principal Parts

moneō

monēre

monuī

monitum

Indicative

Active

Passive

Present

moneō

monēmus

moneor

monēmur

monēs

monētis

monēris, -re

monēminī

monet

monent

monētur

monentur

Active		Passive	
Imperfect			
monēbam	monēbāmus	monēbar	monēbāmur
monēbās	monēbātis	monēbāris, -re	monēbāminī
monēbat	monēbant	monēbātur	monēbantur
Future			
monēbō	monēbimus	monēbor	monēbimur
monēbis	monēbitis	monēberis, -re	monēbiminī
monēbit	monēbunt	monēbitur	monēbuntur
Perfect			
monuī	monuimus	monitus sum	monitī sumus
monuistī	monuistis	monitus es	monitī estis
monuit	monuērunt, -re	monitus est	monitī sunt
Pluperfect			
monueram	monuerāmus	monitus eram	monitī erāmus
monuerās	monuerātis	monitus erās	monitī erātis
monuerat	monuerant	monitus erat	monitī erant
Future Perfect			
monuerō	monuerimus	monitus erō	monitī erimus
monueris	monueritis	monitus eris	monitī eritis
monuerit	monuerint	monitus erit	monitī erunt
Subjunctive			
Present			
moneam	moneāmus	monear	moneāmur
moneās	moneātis	moneāris, -re	moneāminī
moneat	moneant	moneātur	moneantur
Imperfect			
monērem	monērēmus	monērer	monērēmur
monērēs	monērētis	monērēris, -re	monērēminī
monēret	monērent	monērētur	monērentur
Perfect			
monuerim	monuerīmus	monitus sim	monitī sīmus
monueris	monuerītis	monitus sis	monitī sītis
monuerit	monuerint	monitus sit	monitī sint

Active		Pluperfect	Passive
monuissem	monuissēmus	monitus essem	monitī essēmus
monuissēs	monuissētis	monitus essēs	monitī essētis
monuisset	monuissent	monitus esset	monitī essent

Imperative

Present			
monē	monēte	monēre	monēminī
Future			
monētō	monētōte	monētor	
monētō	monentō	monētor	monentor

Infinitives

Pres. monēre	monērī
Perf. monuisse	monitus esse
Fut. monitūrus esse	monitum irī

Participles

Pres. monēns	
	Perf. monitus
Fut. monitūrus	Fut. monendus
Gerund	Supine
monendī	
monendō	
monendum	monitum
monendō	monitū

THIRD CONJUGATION

regō, rule

323.

Principal Parts

regō	regere	rēxī	rēctum
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Indicative

Active		Passive	
Present			
regō	regimus	regor	regimur
regis	regitis	regeris, -re	regimini
regit	regunt	regitur	reguntur

Active		Passive	
Imperfect			
regēbam	regēbāmus	regēbar	regēbāmur
regēbās	regēbātis	regēbāris, -re	regēbāminī
regēbat	regēbant	regēbātur	regēbantur
Future			
regam	regēmus	regar	regēmur
regēs	regētis	regēris, -re	regēminī
reget	regent	regētur	regentur
Perfect			
rēxī	rēximus	rēctus sum	rēctī sumus
rēxistī	rēxistis	rēctus es	rēctī estis
rēxit	rēxērunt, -re	rēctus est	rēctī sunt
Pluperfect			
rēxeram	rēxerāmus	rēctus eram	rēctī erāmus
rēxerās	rēxerātis	rēctus erās	rēctī erātis
rēxerat	rēxerant	rēctus erat	rēctī erant
Future Perfect			
rēxerō	rēxerimus	rēctus erō	rēctī erimus
rēxeris	rēxeritis	rēctus eris	rēctī eritis
rēxerit	rēxerint	rēctus erit	rēctī erunt
Subjunctive			
Present			
regam	regāmus	regar	regāmur
regās	regātis	regāris, -re	regāminī
regat	regant	regātur	regantur
Imperfect			
regerem	regerēmus	regerer	regerēmur
regerēs	regerētis	regerēris, -re	regerēminī
regeret	regerent	regerētur	regerentur
Perfect			
rēxerim	rēxerimus	rēctus sim	rēctī simus
rēxeris	rēxeritis	rēctus sis	rēctī sitis
rēxerit	rēxerint	rēctus sit	rēctī sint

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Active		Passive	
Pluperfect			
rēxissem	rēxissemus	rēctus essem	rēctī essēmus
rēxisse	rēxissetis	rēctus essēs	rēctī essētis
rēxisset	rēxissent	rēctus esset	rēctī essent

Imperative

Present			
rege	regite	regere	regimini

Future			
regitō	regitōte	regitor	
regitō	reguntō	regitor	reguntor

Infinitives

Pres. regere	regi
Perf. rēxisse	rēctus esse
Fut. rēctūrus esse	rēctum iri

Participles

Pres. regēns	
	Perf. rēctus
Fut. rēctūrus	Fut. regendus

Gerund	Supine
regendī	
regendō	
regendum	rēctum
regendō	rēctū

Verbs in -iŏ of the Third Conjugation

324. These verbs have in the present system certain forms which are identical with those of the Fourth Conjugation; the perfect and participial systems are regular.

Verbs in *-iō* of the Third Conjugation*capiō, take*

Principal Parts

capiō	capere	cēpī	captum
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Indicative

Active

Passive

Present

capiō	capimus	capior	capimur
capis	capitis	caperis, -re	capiminī
capit	capiunt	capitur	capiuntur

Imperfect

capiēbam, etc.	capiēbar, etc.
-----------------------	-----------------------

Future

capiam, etc.	capiar, etc.
---------------------	---------------------

Subjunctive

Present

capiam, etc.	capiar, etc.
---------------------	---------------------

Imperfect

caperem, etc.	caperer, etc.
----------------------	----------------------

Imperative

Present

cape	capite	capere	capimini
-------------	---------------	---------------	-----------------

Future

capitō	capitōte	capitor	
capitō	capiuntō	capitor	capiuntor

Infinitives

Pres. capere	capi
---------------------	-------------

Participles

Pres. capiēns	Fut. capiendus
----------------------	-----------------------

Gerund

capiendi, etc.

FOURTH CONJUGATION

audiō, *hear*

325.

Principal Parts

audiō

audire

audivī

audītum

Indicative

Active

Passive

Present

audiō

audīmus

audiōr

audīmur

audīs

audītis

audīris, -re

audīmini

audīt

audiunt

audītur

audiuntur

Imperfect

audiēbam

audiēbāmus

audiēbar

audiēbāmur

audiēbās

audiēbātis

audiēbāris, -re

audiēbāmini

audiēbat

audiēbant

audiēbātur

audiēbantur

Future

audiam

audiēmus

audiar

audiēmur

audiēs

audiētis

audiēris, -re

audiēmini

audiet

audient

audiētur

audientur

Perfect

audivī

audivimus

audītus sum

audītī sumus

audivistī

audivistis

audītus es

audītī estis

audivīt

audivērunt, -re

audītus est

audītī sunt

Pluperfect

audiveram

audiverāmus

audītus eram

audītī erāmus

audiverās

audiverātis

audītus erās

audītī erātis

audiverat

audiverant

audītus erat

audītī erant

Future Perfect

audiverō

audiverimus

audītus erō

audītī erimus

audiveris

audiveritis

audītus eris

audītī eritis

audiverit

audiverint

audītus erit

audītī erunt

Subjunctive

Present

audiam

audiāmus

audiar

audiāmur

audiās

audiātis

audiāris, -re

audiāmini

audiat

audiant

audiātur

audiantur

Active		Imperfect	Passive
audīrem	audirēmus	audīrer	audirēmur
audirēs	audirētis	audirēris, -re	audirēmini
audiret	audirent	audirētur	audirentur
		Perfect	
audiverim	audiverīmus	audītus sim	audītī sīmus
audiverīs	audiverītis	audītus sīs	audītī sītis
audiverit	audiverint	audītus sit	audītī sint
		Pluperfect	
audivissem	audivissēmus	audītus essem	audītī essēmus
audivissēs	audivissētis	audītus essēs	audītī essētis
audivisset	audivissent	audītus esset	audītī essent
Imperative			
Present			
audī	audīte	audīre	audīmini
Future			
audītō	audītōte	audītor	
audītō	audiuntō	audītor	audiuntor
Infinitives			
Pres. audire		audirī	
Perf. audivisse		audītus esse	
Fut. audītūrus esse		audītum irī	
Participles			
Pres. audiēns			
		Perf. audītus	
Fut. audītūrus		Fut. audiendus	
Gerund		Supine	
audiendī			
audiendō			
audiendum		audītum	
audiendō		audītū	

DEPONENT VERBS

326. Deponent Verbs are conjugated like regular verbs, but with the exceptions noted before (see **273**), only in the passive voice.

Examples:—

First conjugation: **conor, conārī, conātus sum, attempt**

Second conjugation: **vereor, verērī, veritus sum, fear**

Third conjugation: **ūtor, ūtī, ūsus sum, use**

Fourth conjugation: **ōrdior, ōrdīrī, ōrsus sum, begin**

The semi-deponent **audeō, dare**, has an old perfect subjunctive **ausim**.

For the meanings of the participles of Deponent Verbs and for the deponent use of the perfect passive participle of certain regular verbs, see 273 and 307.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION

327. There are two Periphrastic Conjugations,—the Active, consisting of the future active participle with the auxiliary verb **sum**, and the Passive, consisting of the future passive participle with the auxiliary verb **sum**. The Active indicates a future or intended action, the Passive indicates one that is intended, proper, or necessary. The conjugation is as follows:

Indicative	
Active	Passive
Present	
amātūrus sum, <i>I am about to love</i>	amandus sum, <i>I am to be loved</i>
Imperfect	
amātūrus eram	amandus eram
Future	
amātūrus erō	amandus erō
Perfect	
amātūrus fui	amandus fui
Pluperfect	
amātūrus fueram	amandus fueram
Future Perfect	
amātūrus fuerō	amandus fuerō
Subjunctive	
Present	
amātūrus sim	amandus sim

Active	Imperfect	Passive
amātūrus essem		amandus essem
	Perfect	
amātūrus fuerim		amandus fuerim
	Pluperfect	
amātūrus fuisset		amandus fuisset
Infinitives		
Pres. amātūrus esse		amandus esse
Perf. amātūrus fuisse		amandus fuisse

IRREGULAR VERBS

328. The conjugation of **sum** has been given. Its compounds are conjugated in the same way. In **prōsum** the preposition appears as **prōd** before a vowel: as, **prōdest**, **prōderam**, **prōdesse**; this is due to the influence of **retrō** and other words which originally had a final **d** (see 45). **Absum** has **āfui**, etc., and **āfutūrus**.

Conjugation of *possum*, *be able*

329. In its present system **possum** is a compound of **potis** or **pote**, *able*, and **sum**; the perfect system and the participle **potēns** (used as an adjective) are from an obsolete verb **poteō**. Uncompounded forms appear in early Latin: as, **potis sum** or **pote sum**, either form of the adjective being used for any gender or either number.

Principal Parts

	possum	posse	potui
	Indicative		Subjunctive
Pres.	possum	possumus	possim possimus
	potes	potestis	possis possitis
	potest	possunt	possit possint
Imp.	poteram		possem
Fut.	poterō		
Perf.	potui		potuerim
Plup.	potueram		potuissem
Fut. P.	potuerō		

Infinitives	Participle
Pres. posse	potēns (adj.)
Perf. potuisse	

Longer forms, *potessem* and *potesse*, are sometimes found; also, the early present subjunctive *possiem*.

Conjugation of *volō*, *wish*, and its compounds

330. *Nōlō*, *be unwilling*, is a compound of *nē* and *volō*; *mālō*, *prefer*, is a compound of *magis* (in the form *mag*) and *volō*.

Principal Parts

<i>volō</i>	<i>velle</i>	<i>volui</i>
<i>nōlō</i>	<i>nolle</i>	<i>nōlui</i>
<i>mālō</i>	<i>malle</i>	<i>mālui</i>

Indicative

Pres.	<i>volō</i>	<i>nōlō</i>	<i>mālō</i>
	<i>vīs</i>	<i>nōn vīs</i>	<i>māvis</i>
	<i>vult</i>	<i>nōn vult</i>	<i>māvult</i>
	<i>volumus</i>	<i>nolumus</i>	<i>mālumus</i>
	<i>vultis</i>	<i>nōn vultis</i>	<i>māvultis</i>
	<i>volunt</i>	<i>nōlunt</i>	<i>mālunt</i>
Imp.	<i>volēbam</i>	<i>nōlēbam</i>	<i>mālēbam</i>
Fut.	<i>volam</i>	<i>nōlam</i>	<i>mālam</i>
Perf.	<i>volui</i>	<i>nōlui</i>	<i>mālui</i>
Plup.	<i>volueram</i>	<i>nōlueram</i>	<i>mālueram</i>
Fut. P.	<i>voluerō</i>	<i>nōluerō</i>	<i>māluerō</i>

Subjunctive

Pres.	<i>velim, -is, -it, etc.</i>	<i>nōlim</i>	<i>mālim</i>
Imp.	<i>vellem, -ēs, -et, etc.</i>	<i>nōllem</i>	<i>māllem</i>
Perf.	<i>voluerim</i>	<i>nōluerim</i>	<i>māluerim</i>
Plup.	<i>voluissem</i>	<i>nōluissem</i>	<i>māluissem</i>

Imperative

Pres.	<i>nōlī</i>	<i>nōlīte</i>
Fut.	<i>nōlitō</i>	<i>nōlitōte</i>
	<i>nōlitō</i>	<i>nōluntō</i>

Infinitives

Pres. velle	nōlle	mālle
Perf. voluisse	nōluisse	māluisse

Participles

Pres. volēns	nōlēns
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Down to the Augustan period **vult** and **voltis** were used for **vult** and **vultis**. In early Latin **nēvis** and **nēvolt** occur, for **nōn vis** and **nōn vult**; and **sī vultis** appears as **sultis**. **Sī vis** was commonly contracted into **sīs**.

Conjugation of *ferō*, *bear*

331. This verb has two independent stems, — the present stem **fer-** and the root **tol-** (cf. **tollō**), which appears in the perfect system as **tul-** and in the participial system as **lāt-** (for **tlāt-**).

Principal Parts

	ferō	ferre	tulī	lātum
	Active		Passive	
	Indicative			
Pres.	ferō	ferimus	feror	ferimur
	fers	fertis	ferris, -re	ferimini
	fert	ferunt	fertur	feruntur
Imp.	ferēbam		ferēbar	
Fut.	feram		ferar	
Perf.	tulī		lātus sum	
Plup.	tuleram		lātus eram	
Fut. P.	tulerō		lātus erō	

Subjunctive

Pres.	feram	ferar
Imp.	ferrem	ferrer
Perf.	tulerim	lātus sim
Plup.	tulissem	lātus essem

Imperative

Pres.	fer	ferite	ferre	ferimini
Fut.	fertō	fertōte	fertor	
	fertō	feruntō	fertor	feruntor

Active	Passive
Infinitives	
Pres. <i>ferre</i>	<i>ferri</i>
Perf. <i>tulisse</i>	<i>lātus esse</i>
Fut. <i>lāturus esse</i>	<i>lātum iri</i>
Participles	
Pres. <i>ferēns</i>	
	Perf. <i>lātus</i>
Fut. <i>lāturus</i>	Fut. <i>ferendus</i>
Gerund	
<i>ferendī, etc.</i>	

332. The compounds of *ferō* are conjugated like the simple verb, but the phonetic changes of the prepositional forms should be noted: —

<i>adferō</i>	<i>adferre</i>	<i>attulī</i>	<i>allātum</i>
<i>auferō</i>	<i>auferre</i>	<i>abstulī</i>	<i>ablātum</i>
<i>cōnferō</i>	<i>cōnferre</i>	<i>contulī</i>	<i>collātum</i>
<i>differō</i>	<i>differre</i>	<i>distulī</i>	<i>dīlātum</i>
<i>effērō</i>	<i>efferre</i>	<i>extulī</i>	<i>ēlātum</i>
<i>īnferō</i>	<i>īnferre</i>	<i>intulī</i>	<i>illātum</i>
<i>offerō</i>	<i>offerre</i>	<i>obtulī</i>	<i>oblātum</i>
<i>referō</i>	<i>referre</i>	<i>rettulī</i>	<i>relātum</i>
<i>sufferō</i>	<i>sufferre</i>	<i>sustulī</i>	<i>sublātum</i>

Rettulī is for *retetulī*; the reduplicated form of the simple verb, *tetulī*, occurs in Plautus. *Sustulī* and *sublātus* serve also as the perfect indicative and perfect participle of *tollō, raise*.

Conjugation of *eō, go*

333. The root is *ei*, which appears as *ī* or *i* (the latter before a vowel or final *t* and in *itūrus* and *itum*) except before *a, o, or u*, where it appears as *e*.

Principal Parts			
<i>eō</i>	<i>ire</i>	<i>iī (ivī)</i>	<i>itum</i>

	Indicative		Subjunctive	
Pres.	eō	imus	eam	eāmus
	is	itis	eās	eātis
	it	eunt	eat	eant
Imp.	ibam		irem	
Fut.	ibō			
Perf.	iī	iimus	ierim	
	istī	istis		
	iūt, it	iērunť, -re		
Plup.	ieram		issem	
Fut. P.	ierō			

	Imperative		Infinitives	
Pres.	i	ite	Pres. ire	
Fut.	itō	itōte	Perf. isse	
	itō	euntō	Fut. itūrus esse	

	Participles	Gerund
Pres.	iēns (gen. euntis)	eundi, etc.
Fut.	itūrus	

Forms with *v* in the perfect system, as, *ivī*, *iverat*, *ivisse*, are found, but almost exclusively in poetry or late prose. *ii* is regularly contracted to *i* before *s*, but the forms *iistī*, *iistis*, *iissem*, etc., and *iisse* are found sometimes in compounds.

334. The simple verb is used only impersonally in the passive: as, *itur*, *ibātur*, *itum est*, *eundum est*; but compounds of transitive meaning, like *adeō*, *approach*, have a complete passive conjugation. The present passive indicative of *adeō* is conjugated as follows:—

adeor	adimur
adiris	adimini
aditur	adeuntur

In *prōdeō*, the preposition assumes a final *d* (see *prōsum*, 328). *Ambiō* is inflected regularly as a verb of the fourth conjugation.

335. *Queō, can,* and *nequeō, can not,* are conjugated like *eō*, except that the perfect is *quīvī, nequīvī*, and that certain forms are lacking.

Conjugation of *fiō*, be made, be done, or become

336. *Faciō, make, do,* lacks the present passive system, except the future passive participle *faciendus*; its perfect and participial systems are complete: *factus sum, factus esse*, etc. The missing present passive system is supplied by *fiō*:—

	Indicative		Subjunctive	
Pres.	<i>fiō</i>	—	<i>fiam</i>	<i>fiāmus</i>
	<i>fis</i>	—	<i>fiās</i>	<i>fiātis</i>
	<i>fit</i>	<i>fiunt</i>	<i>fiat</i>	<i>fiant</i>
Imp.	<i>fiēbam</i>		<i>fierem</i>	
Fut.	<i>fiam</i>			
	Imperative		Infinitive	
Pres.	<i>fī</i>	<i>fīte</i>	<i>fieri</i>	

337. Prepositional compounds of *faciō* are usually conjugated regularly; e.g. *cōnficior, dēficitur*. But sometimes forms of *fiō* are used in such compounds: as, *cōnfit, cōnfiunt, dēfit, infit*. Compounds like *benefaciō, calefaciō, patefaciō* have forms of *fiō* in the passive.

Conjugation of *edō*, eat

338. In addition to forms with the thematic vowel, *edō* has forms in certain parts of the present system, made by attaching the personal endings directly to the root *ed-*, the *d* of the root being changed to *s* and the vowel being lengthened.

Principal Parts: *edō, edere* or *ēsse, ēdī, ēsum*.

	Indicative		Subjunctive	
Pres.	<i>edō</i>	<i>edimus</i>	<i>edim(edam)</i>	<i>edīmus(edāmus)</i>
	<i>ēs(edis)</i>	<i>ēstis(editis)</i>	<i>edīs(edās)</i>	<i>edītis(edātis)</i>
	<i>ēst(edit)</i>	<i>edunt</i>	<i>edit(edat)</i>	<i>edint(edant)</i>
Imp.	<i>edēbam</i>		<i>ēssem(ederem)</i>	
Fut.	<i>edam</i>			

Imperativē

Pres. ēs (ede)	ēste (edite)
Fut. ēstō (editō)	ēstōte (editōte)
ēstō (editō)	edunto

Infinitive	Participle	Gerund
Pres. ēsse (edere)	edēns	edendī, etc.

In the participial system there are *ēsus*, *ēsurus*, and the supines *ēsum*, *ēsū*.

The longer forms of the present indicative are found only in late Latin. The subjunctive forms *edim*, etc., are the only ones in common use till the Augustan period.

In the passive, besides the regular forms, the present indicative *ēstur* and the imperfect subjunctive *ēssētur* occur rarely.

The compound *comedō* has the perfect passive participle *comēstus*, as well as *comēsus*.

Conjugation of *dō*, give

339. This verb is conjugated as a verb of the first conjugation, except that *a* is long only in the second person singular of the present indicative and present imperative and in the nominative singular of the present participle. The passive is inflected regularly with the short vowel.

Early forms from another root *du-* are the present subjunctive *duim*, *duīs*, *duit*, etc., and, sometimes, *duam*, *duās*, *duat*, etc.

The verb *dō* had originally two meanings, *give* and *put*, and most compounds contain the latter meaning.

340. Compounds with a monosyllabic prefix are conjugated as verbs of the third conjugation, *e* and *a* becoming *i* in the perfect and participial systems: as, *abdō*, *abdere*, *abdidī*, *abditum*. Those with a dissyllabic prefix are conjugated like the simple verb *dō*: as, *circumdō*, *circumdare*, *circumdedī*, *circumdatum*. Compounds sometimes have the subjunctive *-duim*, etc.; *interdō* sometimes has the present indicative *interduō* from the same root.

DEFECTIVE VERBS

341. Defective Verbs lack certain forms. The most common and the forms of each which are found are as follows:—

Conjugation of *aiō*, say

	Indicative		Subjunctive	
Pres.	<i>aiō</i>	—	—	—
	<i>ais</i>	—	<i>aiās</i>	—
	<i>ait</i>	<i>aiunt</i>	<i>aiat</i>	—
Imp.	<i>aiēbam</i>	<i>aiēbāmus</i>		
	<i>aiēbās</i>	<i>aiēbātis</i>		
	<i>aiēbat</i>	<i>aiēbant</i>		

Imperative

aī

Participle

aiēns

The imperfect *aibam*, etc. (with *ai* pronounced as one syllable) is common in early Latin; *ais* with the interrogative enclitic *-ne* is often written *ain*.

Before a vowel the *i* is a consonant, and in such forms a vowel *i* was developed before the consonant, so that they were pronounced and sometimes written *aiiō*, *aiiēbam*, etc.

342.Conjugation of *inquam*, say

	Indicative			
Pres.	<i>inquam</i>	<i>inquimus</i>	Fut.	— —
	<i>inquis</i>	<i>inquitis</i>		<i>inquiēs</i> —
	<i>inquit</i>	<i>inquiunt</i>		<i>inquiet</i> —
Imp.	—	—	Perf.	<i>inquiī</i> —
	—	—		<i>inquistī</i> —
	<i>inquiēbat</i>	—		— —

Imperative

*inque**inquitō*

Only *inquam*, *inquis*, *inquit*, *inquiunt* and the forms of the future are in common use.

343. Conjugation of *fāri*, *speak*

Indicative			
Pres. ———	————	Perf. fātus sum	fātī sumus
————	————	fātus es	fātī estis
fātur	fantur	fātus est	fātī sunt
Fut. fābor	————	Plup. fātus eram	fātī erāmus
————	————	fātus erās	fātī erātis
fābitur	————	fātus erat	fātī erant

Imperative

fāre

Infinitive	Participles	Gerund	Supine
fāri	fāns	fandī	fātū
	fātus	fandō (abl.)	
	fandus		

Other forms are used in compounds of *fāri*.

344. Three verbs are used mainly in the perfect system, — *coepī*, *I have begun*, *meminī*, *I remember*, and *ōdī*, *I hate*. The perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect of *meminī* and *ōdī* have the meanings of the present, imperfect, and future respectively.

These verbs all have a complete perfect active system. In addition, *coepī* has *coeptūrus*, *coeptūrus esse*, *coeptus*, and a complete perfect passive system, which is used regularly when there is a dependent passive infinitive: as, *id fierī coeptum est*, *this began to be done*; a few forms of the present system occur in early writers. *Meminī* has the imperative forms *mementō*, *mementōte*. *Ōdī* has *ōsūrus* and occasional forms of a perfect passive system used as deponents.

345. Many verbs of the second, third, and fourth conjugations are used only in the present system. Inceptives derived from verbs have no perfect system of their own, but use that of the simple verb; they have no participial system. The verbs used as regular forms of greeting, *avēre* (or *havēre*) and *salvēre*, appear rarely except in the infinitive and imperative: *salvē*, *salvēte*, *salvētō*; *avē*, *avēte*, *avētō*. The verb *cedo*, *give* (imperative), plural *cette*, has no other forms.

IMPERSONAL VERBS

346. These verbs are used (except for a few scattered forms) only in the third person singular and the present and perfect infinitives: as, **pluit**, *it rains*; **licet**, *it is allowed*. Some personal verbs are used impersonally in certain senses: as, **accidit**, *it happens*; **cōstat**, *it is evident*. The passive of some intransitive verbs is used impersonally: as, **itur**, *it is gone*, i.e. *some one goes*; **pugnātur**, *there is fighting*; **ventum est**, *some one came*.

LIST OF VERBS

347. In this list the following verbs are omitted: — regular verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, inflected like **amō**, **moneō**, and **audiō**; verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations whose only irregularity is the lack of the perfect or participial system, or both; inceptives formed from existing simple verbs and having no peculiarities. The principal parts of compounds are given under the simple verb; compounds are not noted in their proper place in the alphabetical list if the form of the verbal element is the same as that of the simple verb. A prefixed hyphen indicates that the verb is found only in compounds. The abbreviations Def. and Impers. are used for Defective and Impersonal.

abiciō, see **iaciō**.

abigō, see **agō**.

aboleō, **abolēre**, **abolēvī**, **abolitum**.

abripīō, see **rapiō**.

abscīdō, see **caedō**.

abstineō, see **teneō**.

accersō, see **arcessō**.

accidō, see **cadō**.

accīdō, see **caedō**.

accipiō, see **capiō**.

acquirō, see **quaerō**.

acuō, **acuere**, **acui**, **acūtum**.

adhibeō, see **habeō**.

adiciō, see **iaciō**.

adigō, see **agō**.

adimō, see **emō**.

adipīscor, see **apīscor**.

adolēscō, see **alēscō**.

adsideō, see **sedeō**.

afficiō, see **faciō**.

aggredior, see **gradior**.

agnōscō, see nōscō.

agō, agere, ēgī, āctum. So circumagō and peragō. But abigō, abigere, abēgī, abāctum; and so adigō, ambigō, exigō, prōdigō, redigō, subigō, trānsigō. (See cōgō and dēgō.)

aiō, Def., (341).

alēscō, alēscere. adolēscō, adolēscere, adolēvī, adultum; coalēscō coalēscere, coaluī, coalitum; exolēscō, exolēscere, exolēvī, exolētum; inolēscō, inolēscere, inolēvī; subolēscō, subolēscere.

algeō, algēre, alsī.

alliciō, see -liciō.

alō, alere, aluī, altum or alitum.

ambigō, see agō.

ambiō, see eō.

amiciō, amicīre, amixī or amicuī, amictum.

angō, angere.

aperiō, aperīre, aperuī, apertum.

apīscor, apīscī, aptus sum. adipīscor, adipīscī, adeptus sum; so indipīscor.

arcessō (or accersō), arcessere, arcessivī, arcessitum.

ārdeō, ārdēre, ārsī, ārsūrus.

arguō, arguere, arguī, argūtum.

arrigō, see regō.

arripiō, see rapiō.

ascendō, see scandō.

aspergō, see spargō.

attineō, see teneō.

attingō, see tangō.

audeō, audēre, ausus sum.

augeō, augēre, auxī, auctum.

avē, Def., (345).

batuō, batuere, batuī.

bibō, bibere, bibī.

cadō, cadere, cecidī, cāsūrus.

Cpds., -cidō, -cidere, -cidī, -cāsum.

caedō, caedere, cecidī, caesum.

Cpds., -cidō, -cidere, -cidī, -cīsum.

canō, canere, cecinī. Cpds.,

-cinō, -cinere, -cinuī (rarely -cecinī).

capessō, capessere, capessivī, capessitum.

capiō, capere, cēpī, captum.

So antecapiō; other cpds., -cipiō, -cipere, -cēpī, -ceptum.

carpō, carpere, carpsī, carp-

tum. Cpds., -cerpō, -cerpere, -cerpsī, -cerptum.

caveō, cavēre, cāvī, cautum.

cedo, Def., (345).

cēdō, cēdere, cessī, cessum.

-cellō, -cellere. So antecellō, praecellō, recellō. But ex-

- cellō, excellere, excelluī, excelsum.
- cendō, -cendere, -cendi, -cēsum.
- cēseō, cēnsēre, cēnsuī, cēsum.
- cernō, cernere, crēvī, -crētum (rarely certum).
- cieō, ciēre, civī, citum. Also, in cpds., -ciō, -cīre, -civī, -cītum; so always acciō. Other cpds. have forms of both conjugations.
- cingō, cingere, cīnxī, cīnctum.
- claudeō, claudēre; also claudō, claudere.
- claudō, *close*, claudere, clausī, clausum. Cpds., -clūdō, -clūdere, -clūsī, -clūsum.
- clepō, clepere, clepsī.
- coepī, Def., (344).
- cōgō, cōgere, coēgī, coāctum.
- collidō, see laedō.
- colligō, see legō.
- colō, colere, coluī, cultum.
- combūrō, see ūrō.
- comminīscor, comminīscī, commentus sum.
- cōmō, cōmere, cōmpsī, cōmp-tum.
- compercō, see parcō.
- comperiō, see -periō.
- compescō, compescere, compescuī.
- compingō, see pangō.
- comprimō, see premō.
- concidō, see cadō.
- concidō, see caedō.
- concinō, see canō.
- concipiō, see capiō.
- conclūdō, see claudō.
- concutiō, see quatiō.
- cōnferciō, see farciō.
- cōnficiō, see faciō.
- cōnfiteor, see fateor.
- cōnfringō, see frangō.
- congregior, see gradior.
- congruō, congruere, congruī.
- coniciō, see iaciō.
- cōnīveō, cōnīvēre, cōnīvī or cōnīxī.
- conquīrō, see quaerō.
- cōnspergō, see spargō.
- cōnspiciō, see -spiciō.
- cōnstituō, see statuō.
- cōnsulō, cōnsulere, cōnsuluī, cōnsultum.
- conticēscō, conticēscere, conticuī.
- contineō, see teneō.
- contingō, see tangō.
- coquō, coquere, coxī, coctum.
- corrigō, see regō.
- corripiō, see rapiō.
- crēbrēscō, crēbrēscere, crēbrui.
- crēdō, crēdere, crēdidī, crēditum.
- crepō, crepāre, crepuī (-crepāvī rare), crepitum.

crēscō, crēscere, crēvī, crētum.
 crūdēscō, crūdēscere, crūduī.
 cubō, cubāre, cubuī (cubāvī
 rare), cubitum.
 cūdō, cūdere, -cūdī, -cūsum.
 -cumbō, -cumbere, -cubuī, -cu-
 bitum.
 cupiō, cupere, cupīvī, cupītum.
 currō, currere, cucurrī, cur-
 sum. In cpds. the perfect
 is -currī or -cucurrī.

dēcerpō, see carpō.
 decet, decēre, decuit. Impers.
 dēcipiō, see capiō.
 dēfetīscor, see fatīscō.
 dēgō, dēgere.
 dēlēō, dēlēre, dēlēvī, dēlētum.
 dēlibuō, dēlibuere, dēlibuī, dē-
 libūtum.
 dēligō, see legō.
 dēlitēscō, dēlitēscere, dēlituī.
 dēmō, dēmere, dēmpsī, dēmp-
 tum.
 dēprimō, see premō.
 depsō, depsere, depsuī, deps-
 tum.
 dēripiō, see rapiō.
 dēscendō, see scandō.
 dēsiliō, see saliō.
 dēsipiō, see sapiō.
 dētineō, see teneō.
 dīcō, dīcere, dīxī, dictum.
 diffiteor, see fateor.
 dīligō, see legō.

dirimō, see emō.
 dīripiō, see rapiō.
 discō, discere, didici.
 discutiō, see quatiō.
 disiciō, see iaciō.
 dissideō, see sedeō.
 dissiliō, see saliō.
 dītēscō, dītēscere.
 dīvidō, dīvidere, dīvisī, dīvi-
 sum.
 dō, dare, dedī, datum. So
 circumdō, etc.; see 340.
 Other cpds. are of the third
 conjugation: e.g. abdō, ab-
 dere, abdidī, abditum; so
 addō, condō, crēdō, dēdō, dī-
 dō, ēdō, indō, obdō, perdō,
 prōdō, reddō, subdō, trādō,
 vēndō.
 doceō, docēre, docuī, doctum.
 domō, domāre, domuī, domi-
 tum.
 dūcō, dūcere, dūxī, ductum.
 dūlcēscō, dūlcēscere.
 dūrēscō, dūrēscere, dūruī.
 edō, edere or ēsse, ēdī, ēsum.
 So comedō, but comēsum
 or comēstum.
 efficiō, see faciō.
 ēiciō, see iaciō.
 ēliciō, see -liciō.
 eligō, see legō.
 ēmineō, ēminēre, ēminuī.

emō, emere, ēmi, ēmptum.

So **coemō** and, rarely, **interemō** and **peremō**; usually **interimō** and **perimō**. Most cpds. change **e** to **i** in present system: **adimō, dirimō, eximō, redimō**. Cf. also **cōmō, dēmō, prēmō, sūmō**.

eō, ire, iī or ivī, itum. Cpds. the same, except **ambiō, ambire, ambivī, ambitum**.

See also **vēneō**.

ērigō, see regō.

ēvanēscō, ēvanēscere, ēvanuī.

ēvilēscō, ēvilēscere, ēviluī.

exciō, see cieō.

excipiō, see capiō.

exclūdō, see claudō.

excutiō, see quatiō.

exerceō, see arceō.

exigō, see agō.

eximō, see emō.

exolēscō, see alēscō.

**expergīscor, expergīscī, exper-
rēctus sum.**

exerior, see -periō.

explōdō, see plaudō.

exsiliō, see saliō.

exuō, exuere, exuī, exūtum.

**facessō, facessere, facessivī
or facessī, facessītum.**

faciō, facere, fēcī, factum. So
non-prepositional cpds., as

benefaciō, calefaciō. Prepositional cpds., **-ficiō, -ficere, -fēcī, -fectum.**

**fallō, fallere, fefellī, falsum.
refellō, refellere, refellī.**

farcīō, farcīre, farsī, fartum
(rarely **farctum**). **cōnferciō, cōnfercīre, cōnferturn; re-
ferciō, refercīre, refersī, refertum.**

fateor, fatērī, fassus sum.
Cpds., **-fiteor, -fitērī, -fessus sum.**

fatiscō, fatiscere.

faveō, favēre, fāvī, fautum.

**-fendō, -fendere, -fendī, -fēn-
sum.**

ferō, ferre, tulī, lātum. For
cpds. see 332.

**ferveō, fervēre, ferbuī; also
fervō, fervere, fervī.**

fidō, fidere, fīsus sum.

fīgō, fīgere, fīxī, fixum.

findō, findere, fidī, fissum.

figō, fingere, finxī, fictum.

fīō, fierī, factus sum. For
cpds. see 337.

flectō, flectere, flexī, flexum.

fleō, flēre, flēvī, flētum

-fligō, -fligere, -flīxī, -flictum.

fluō, fluere, flūxī, (flūxus, adj.).

fodiō, fodere, fōdī, fossum.

[for], fārī, fātus sum. Def.,
(343).

foveō, fovēre, fōvī, fōtum.

frangō, frangere, frēgī, frāc-
tum. Cpds., -fringō, -frin-
gere, -frēgī, -frāctum.
fremō, fremere, fremuī.
frendō, frendere, frēsūm or
fressum.
fricō, fricāre, fricuī, frictum or
fricātum.
frigēscō, frigēscere, -frīxī.
frigō, frīgere, frīxī, frīctum.
fruor, fruī, frūctus sum.
fugiō, fugere, fūgī, fugitūrus.
fulciō, fulcīre, fulsī, fultum.
fulgeō, fulgēre, fulsī; also ful-
gō, fulgere.
fundō, fundere, fūdī, fūsum.
fungor, fungī, fūctus sum.
furō, furere.

gaudeō, gaudēre, gavīsus sum.
gemō, gemere, gemuī.
gerō, gerere, gessī, gestum.
gignō, gignere, genuī, genitum.
glīscō, glīscere.
glūbō, glūbere.
gradior, gradī, gressus sum.
Cpds., -gredior, -gredī, -gres-
sus sum.

haereō, haerēre, haesī, haesū-
rus.
hauriō, haurīre, hausī, haus-
tum (but hausūrus).
havē, see avē.
hīscō, hīscere.

icō, icere, icī, ictum.
illiciō, see -liciō.
illidō, see laedō.
imbuō, imbuere, imbuī, im-
būtum.
impingō, see pangō.
incessō, incessere, incessivī
(incessī rare).
incidō, see cadō.
incidō, see caedō.
incipiō, see capiō.
incipissō, incipissere.
inclūdō, see claudō.
incutiō, see quatiō.
indipīscor, see apīscor.
indulgeō, indulgēre, indulsī.
induō, induere, induī, indū-
tum.
ingredior, see gradior.
ingruō, ingruere, ingruī.
inolēscō, see alēscō.
inquam, Def., (342).
inquirō, see quaerō.
insideō, see sedeō.
īnsiliō, see saliō.
īstituō, see statuō.
interficiō, see faciō.
inveterāscō, inveterāscere, in-
veterāvī.
irāscor, irāscī, irātus sum.
iaciō, iacere, iēcī, iactum.
So superiaciō. Other cpds.,
-iciō, -icere, -iēcī, -iectum;
usually in poetry with

lengthening of a prepositional element with a final consonant in the present system, due to an earlier form -ieciō, -iecere.

iubeō, iubēre, iussī, iussum.

iungō, iungere, iūnxī, iunctum.

iuvenēscō, iuvenēscere.

iuvō, iuvāre, iūvī, iūtum (also iuvātūrus).

lābor, lābī, lāpsus sum.

laccessō, laccessere, laccessivī, laccessitum.

laedō, laedere, laesī, laesum.

illidō, illidere, illisī, illisum.

lambō, lambere.

lavō, lavāre, lāvī, lautum or lōtum (rarely lavātum). Also, in early Latin and in poetry, lavō, lavere.

legō, legere, lēgī, lēctum. So adlegō, interlegō, perlegō or pellegō, praelegō, relegō, sublegō, trānslegō. With vowel change, colligō, colligere, collēgī, collēctum; and so dēligō, ēligō, sēligō. With x in perfect, diligō, diligere, dīlēxī, dīlēctum; and so intellegō and neglegō (rarely perfect intelligē and neglēgē).

libet, libēre, libuit or libitum est. Impers.

licet, licēre, licuit or licitum est. Impers.

-liciō, -licere, -lexī, -lectum.

So alliciō, illiciō, pelliciō.

But ēliciō, ēlicere, ēlicuī, ēlicitum.

lingō, lingere, līnxī, līnctum.

linō, linere, lēvī, litum.

linquō, linquere, liquī, -lictum.

liqueō, liquēre, licuī.

liquor, liquī.

loquor, loquī, locūtus sum.

lūceō, lūcēre, lūxī.

lūdō, lūdere, lūsī, lūsum.

lūgeō, lūgēre, lūxī.

luō, *loose*, luere, luī.

-luō, *wash*, -luere, -luī, -lūtum.

mālō, mālī, mālū.

mandō, mandere, mandī, mānsum.

maneō, manēre, mānsī, mānsum.

mānsuēscō, see suēscō.

marcēscō, marcēscere, -marcuī.

mātūrēscō, mātūrēscere, mātūruī.

medeor, medērī.

meminī, Def., (344).

mergō, mergere, mersī, mersum.

mētior, mētīrī, mēnsus sum.

metō, metere, messuī, messum.

metuō, metuere, metuī.

micō, micāre, micuī. So **ēmicō, intermicō.** But **dīmicō, dīmicāre, dīmicāvī** (rarely **dīmicuī**), **dīmicātum.**

mingō, mingere, minxī, mictum.

minuō, minuere, minuī, minūtum.

misceō, miscēre, miscuī, mixtum.

misereor, miserērī, miseritus (rarely **misertus**) **sum.**

mītēscō, mītēscere.

mittō, mittere, mīsī, missum.

molō, molere, moluī, molitum.

mordeō, mordēre, momordī, morsum.

morior, morī or **morīrī, mortuus sum** (but **moritūrus**).

moveō, movēre, mōvī, mōtum.

mulceō, mulcēre, mulsī, mulsum.

mulgeō, mulgēre, mulsī, mulsum.

nanciscor, nancīscī, nactus or **nānctus sum.**

nāscor, nāscī, nātus sum.

necō, necāre, necāvī (**necuī** rare), **necātum.** **ēnecō** (**ēnicō** rare), **ēnecāre, ēnecuī, ēnecum** (**ēnicāvī, ēnecātum** rare).

nectō, nectere, nexuī or **nexī, nexum.** *

neglegō, see legō.

neō, nēre, nēvī.

nequeō, see queō.

nigrēscō, nigrēscere, nigruī.

ninguit or **ningit, nīnxit.** Impers.

nītor, nītī, nīxus or **nīsus sum.**

nōlō, nōlle, nōluī.

nōscō, nōscere, nōvī, nōtum.

So **ignōscō, internōscō, pernōscō, praenōscō**; but **agnitum** and **cognitum** from **agnōscō** and **cognōscō.**

nōtēscō, nōtēscere, nōtuī.

nūbō, nūbere, nūpsī, nūptum.

-nuō, -nuere, -nuī.

oblīvīscor, oblīvīscī, oblītus sum.

obmūtēscō, obmūtēscere, obmūtūī.

obsideō, see sedeō.

obsolēscō, obsolēscere, obsolevī, obsoletum.

obtimeō, see teneō.

obtingit, obtingere, obtigit. Impers.

occallēscō, occallēscere, occalluī.

occidō, see cadō.

occīdō, see caedō.

occinō, see canō.

occipio, see capio.

occulō, occulere, occuluī, occultum.

ōdī, Def., (344).

operiō, operīre, operuī, oper-
tum.

oportet, oportēre, oportuit. Im-
pers.

opperior, see -periō.

opprimō, see premō.

ordior, ordīrī, orsus sum.

orior, orīrī, ortus sum. Fut.
Part. oritūrus. Present sys-
tem, except inf., usually of
third conjugation.

pacīscor, pacīscī, pactus sum.

So dēpacīscor or dēpacīscor.
paenitet, paenitēre, paenituit.
Impers.

pandō, pandere, pandī, passum
orpāsum. So expandō; dis-
pandō or dispendō, dispes-
sum or dispāsum.

pangō, pangere, pepigī (pānxī
and pēgī rare), pāctum.
Cpds., -pingō, -pingere,
-pēgī, -pāctum.

parcō, parcere, pepercī or par-
sī, parsūrus. compercō or
comparcō, compersī.

pariō, parere, peperī, partum
(but paritūrus).

pāscō, pāscere, pāvī, pāstum.

patior, patī, passus sum. per-
petior, perpetī, perpressus
sum.

paveō, pavēre, pavī.

pectō, pectere, pexī, pexum.

pelliciō, see -liciō.

pellō, pellere, pepulī, pulsum.

In cpds. perf. -pulī; but
reppulī (for repepulī) from
repellō.

pendeō, pendēre, pependī (cpds.
-pendī), -pēsum.

pendō, pendere, pependī (cpds.
-pendī), pēsum.

percellō, percellere, perculī,
perculsum.

perficiō, see faciō.

perfringō, see frangō.

pergō, see regō.

-periō, -perīre, -perī, -pertum.

So comperiō and reperiō
(but perf. repperī for repe-
perī); deponent, experior,
experīrī, expertus sum; and
so opperior.

perquirō, see quaerō.

perspiciō, see -spiciō.

pertineō, see teneō.

petessō or petissō, petessere.

petō, petere, petīvī, petītum.

piget, pigēre, piguit or pigitum
est. Impers.

pingō, pingere, pīnxī, pīctum.

pīnsō or pīsō, pīnsere, pīnsuī
or pīsivī, pīstum or pīnsī-
tum.

plangō, plangere. plānxī, plānc-
tum.

plaudō, plaudere, plausī, plausum. So **applaudō, circumplaudō**; but **explōdō, explōdere, explōsī, explōsum**, and so **supplōdō**.

plectō, plectere, plexī, plexum.

So deponent in cpds., **-plector, -plectī, -plexus sum**.

-pleō, -plēre, -plēvī, -plētum.

plicō, plicāre, -plicāvī or -plicuī, -plicātum or -plicitum.

pluit, pluere, pluit or plūvit.

Impers.

polluō, polluere, polluī, pollūtum.

pōnō, pōnere, posuī, positum.

porriciō, porricere, porrectum.

porrigō, see regō.

poscō, poscere, poposci.

possideō, see sedeō.

possum, posse, potuī.

potior, potiri, potitus sum.

Present system, except inf., usually of third conjugation.

pōtō, pōtāre, pōtāvī, pōtum or pōtātum.

praecinō, see canō.

praesideō, see sedeō.

prandeō, prandēre, prānsī, prānsu.

prehendō,prehendere,prehendi,prehensum; also prēndō, prēndere, prēndī, prēnsu.

premō, premere, pressī, pressum. Cpds., **-primō, -primere, -pressī, -pressum.**

prōdigō, see agō.

prōficiō, see faciō.

proficiscor, proficiscī, profectus sum.

prōfiteor, see fateor.

prōmō, prōmere, prōmpsi, prōmptum.

prōsiliō, see saliō.

psallō, psallere, psallī.

pūbescō, pūbescere, pūbuī.

pudet, pudēre, pudit or pudītum est. Impers.

pungō,ungere, pupugī (cpds., -pūnxī), pūctum.

putescō, putescere, putuī.

quaerō, quaerere, quaesivī, quaesitum. Cpds., **-quīrō, -quīrere, -quīsivī, -quīsitum.**

quaesō, quaesere. **quaesō** and **quaesumus** are the only forms in common use.

quatiō, quater, quassum. Cpds., **-cutiō, -cutere, -cussī, -cussum.**

queō, quīre, quīvī, quītum.

queror, querī, questus sum.

quiescō, quiescere, quiēvī, quiētum.

rabō or rabiō, rabere.

rādō, rādere, rāsī, rāsum.

rapio, rapere, rapui, raptum.

Cpds., -**ripio, -ripere, -ripui, -reptum.** In early Latin **surrupio** (perf. **surrupuit** or **surpuit**) is found for **sur-ripio**.

recido, see cadō.

recido, see caedō.

recipio, see capio.

recludō, see claudō.

redigō, see agō.

redimō, see emō.

refellō, see fallō.

referciō, see farciō.

reficiō, see faciō.

refrigescō, see frigescō.

regō, regere, rēxi, rēctum.

Cpds., -**rigō, -rigere, -rēxi, -rēctum**; but **pergō, pergere, perrēxi, perrēctum**, and so **surgō**; rarely **porgō** for **por-rigō**.

reminiscor, reminiscī.

reor, rēri, ratus sum.

reperiō, see -periō.

rēpō, rēpere, rēpsi.

reprimō, see premō.

requirō, see quaerō.

resideō, see sedeō.

resilio, see salio.

resipiscō, resipiscere, resipivi.

respergō, see spargō.

retineō, see teneō.

rideō, ridere, risi, risum.

ringor, ringi, rictus sum.

rōdō, rōdere, rōsi, rōsum.

rudō, rudere, rudivi.

rumpō, rumpere, rūpi, ruptum.

ruō, ruere, rui, -rutum (but **ruiturus**).

saepio, saepire, saepsi, saep-tum.

salio, salire, salui. Cpds., -**silio, -silire, -silui** (-**silivi** late).

salvē, Def., (345).

sancio, sancire, sanxi, sanc-tum.

sapio, sapere, sapivi. Cpds., -**sipio, etc.**

sarcio, sarcire, sarsi, sartum.

scabō, scabere, scābi.

scalpō, scalpere, scalpsi, scalp-tum.

scandō, scandere. Cpds., -**scendō, -scendere, -scendi, -scensum.**

scateō or scatō, scatere or scatere.

scindō, scindere, scidi, scis-sum.

scribō, scribere, scripsi, scrip-tum.

sculpō, sculpere, sculpsi, sculp-tum.

secō, secare, secuī, sectum.

sedeō, sedere, sēdi, sessum.

So **circumsedeō, supersedeō**; but other cpds., -**sideō, -si-dere, -sēdi, -sessum.**

sēligō, see legō.

sentiō, sentīre, sēnsī, sēnsum.

sepeliō, sepelīre, sepelīvī, sepultum.

sequor, sequī, secūtus sum.

serō, serere, -seruī, sertum; *entwine*.

serō, serere, sēvī, satum; *sow*.

Cpds., -serō, -serere, -sēvī, -sītum.

serpō, serpere, serpsī.

sīdō, sīdere, sīdī (-sīdī or -sēdī), -sessum.

sinō, sinere, sīvī, situm.

sistō, sistere, stitī, statum.

soleō, solēre, solitus sum.

solvō,olvere, solvī, solūtum.

sonō, sonāre, sonuī, sonātūrus.

(Also rare forms of third conjugation, sonit, sonunt, etc.)

sorbeō, sorbēre, sorbuī (sorpsī rare).

spargō, spargere, sparsī, sparsum. Cpds., -spergō, -speregere, -spersī, -spersum.

spernō, spernere, sprēvī, sprētum.

-spiciō, -spicere, -spexī, -specum.

spondeō, spondēre, spopondī (cpds., -spondī), spōnsum.

spuō, spuere, -spuī, -spūtum.

statuō, statuere, statui, statūtum. Cpds., -stituō, -stituerere, -stitui, -stitūtum.

sternō, sternere, strāvī, strātum.

sternuō, sternuere, sternuī.

stertō, stertere, -stertuī.

stinguō, stinguere, -stīnxī, -stīnctum.

stō, stāre, steti, -statum or -stitum. Most cpds. have perfect -stiti; but antisteti, circumsteti, supersteti.

strepō, strepere, strepuī.

strideō, strīdēre, strīdī; also strīdō, strīdere.

stringō, stringere, strīnxī, strīctum.

struō, struere, strūxī, strūctum.

suādeō, suādēre, suāsī, suāsum.

subigō, see agō.

subolēscō, see alēscō.

succidō, see cadō.

succidō, see caedō.

suēscō, suēscere, suēvī, suētum.

sufficiō, see faciō.

sūgō, sūgere, sūxī, sūctum.

sum, esse, fuī, futūrus.

sūmō, sūmere, sūmpsī, sūmpum.

suō, suere, suī, sūtum.

supplōdō, see plaudō.

surgō, see regō.

surripīō, see rapiō.

taedet, taedēre, taesum est.

Impers.

tangō, tangere, tetigī, tāctum.

Cpds., -tigō, -tigere, -tigī,
-tāctum.

tegō, tegere, tēxī, tēctum.

temnō, temnere, -tempſi,
-temptum.

tendō, tendere, tetendī (cpds.
-tendī), tentum (tēsum
late). But extendō and os-
tendō have extēsus and
ostēsus (besides the regular
forms) in classical Latin.

teneō, tenēre, tenuī. Cpds.,
-tineō, -tinēre, -tinuī, -ten-
tum.

tergeō, tergēre, tersī, tersum.
(tergō, tergere rare.)

terō, terere, trīvī, trītum.

texō, texere, texuī, textum.

tingō, tingere, tīnxī, tīnctum.
(Also tinguō, tingere.)

tollō, tollere, sustulī, sublā-
tum.

tondeō, tondēre, -tondī or
-totondī, tōnsum.

tonō, tonāre, tonuī, -tonitum
or -tonātum.

torqueō, torquēre, torsī, tor-
tum.

torreō, torrēre, torruī, tostum.

trahō, trahere, trāxī, trāctum.

trānsigō, see agō.

tremō, tremere, tremuī.

tribuō, tribuere, tribuī, tribū-
tum.

trūdō, trūdere, trūsī, trūsium.

tueor, tuērī, tūtus sum.

tundō, tundere, -tudī (but
rettudī from retundō), tū-
sum (-tūsum or -tūnsum).

turgeō, turgēre, tursī.

ulcīscor, ulcīscī, ultus sum.

unguō, unguere, ūnxī, ūnctum.
(Also ungō, ungere.)

urgeō, urgēre, ursī.

ūrō, ūrere, ussī, ūstum.

ūtor, ūtī, ūsus sum.

vādō, vādere, -vāsī, -vāsum.

veho, vehere, vexī, vectum.

vellō, vellere, velli (vulsī late),
vulsum. (Also vollō, vollere,
volli.)

vēndō, see dō.

vēneō, vēnīre, vēnī.

veniō, venīre, vēnī, ventum.

vergō, vergere.

verrō, verrere, -verrī, ver-
sum (early vorrō, etc.)

vertō, vertere, vertī, versum
(early vortō, etc.).

vescor, vescī.

vesperāscit, vesperāscere, ves-
perāvit. Impers.

vetō, vetāre, vetuī, vetitum.
 videō, vidēre, vīdī, vīsum.
 vinciō, vincire, vīxī, vīctum.
 vincō, vincere, vīcī, victum.
 vīsō, vīsere, vīsī.

vīvō, vīvere, vīxī, -vīctum.
 volō, velle, voluī.
 volvō,olvere, volvī, volūtum.
 vomō, vomere, vomuī, vomitum.
 voveō, vovēre, vōvī, vōtum.

PREPOSITIONS

348. Originally case-forms alone served to show in a general way those relations which later were expressed by prepositions in combination with certain cases. Then various adverbs began to be used, to define more exactly the meaning of the case-form, and a new part of speech, the preposition, was thus developed. Many of these adverbs which came to be used as prepositions continued to be used also as adverbs, either as independent words or, as prefixes, in combination with verbs: as, **ante, circum, contrā, inter, per, post.**

The origin of some prepositions is doubtful: as, **ab, ad**; many are case-forms: as **ex, extrā, infrā, suprā, circum, cōram, ante, in.** (For the origin of adverbs see **195 ff.**, and for the use of adverbial or prepositional prefixes with verbs see **260.**)

The use of prepositions with case-forms is treated under the head of Syntax.

CONJUNCTIONS

349. The origin of some Conjunctions is doubtful, but most of them are clearly pronominal adverbs:—as the following, derived from the relative, interrogative, or indefinite pronoun: **-que, quoque, quidem, quippe, cūr** (for **quōr**), **quam, cum** (for **quom**), **quandō, quod, ubī** (for **quubī**), **quia**; from other pronominal roots: **sed, cēterum, enim, nempe, utrum, sī, dum.** The following are from noun or adjective stems:—**modo, vērū, vērō.** The following combinations contain the pronominal element:—**quamvis, quārē, quōminus.** The conjunction **vel** is the imperative of **volō.**

The classification and use of conjunctions are treated under the head of Syntax.

INTERJECTIONS

350. Some Interjections are mere exclamations of surprise, joy, grief, etc.: as, **ō**, **iō**, **ěheu**; some are derived from other words: as, **em** (probably from **eme**, *take*) — later superseded by **ēn**, the Greek **ἔν** —, **ecce** (from a pronominal stem), **prō** (the adverb and preposition); others are Greek words: as, **euge**, **euhoē**; others are oaths, containing the names of deities: as, **hercle**, **pol**.

THIRD PART — SYNTAX

351. Syntax treats of the combination of words in sentences.

352. A Sentence is a complete statement or expression of thought. It may be Simple, having only one subject and predicate, or it may consist of two or more members, called Clauses, each having a subject and predicate.

PRINCIPAL AND SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

353. Clauses are either Principal (independent) or Subordinate (dependent). A Principal Clause is often called the Main Clause. The verb of a Principal Clause is most often in the indicative, but may be in the subjunctive, imperative, or historical infinitive; in indirect discourse and, sometimes, in exclamations a principal verb is in the infinitive. The verb of a Subordinate Clause is in the indicative or subjunctive.

354. A sentence consisting of two or more principal clauses is called Compound; a sentence consisting of one or more principal clauses and one or more subordinate clauses is called Complex. The subordinate clauses may be coördinate with one another or one may be subordinate to another.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

355. The Subject is that about which something is said. The Predicate is that which is said about the Subject.

356. The Subject is a noun or pronoun, or anything else used as a noun.

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The Subject may be an infinitive or a clause: —

praeclārum est scīre Latīnē, it is a fine thing to know Latin; Brut. 140.

placuit eī ut lēgātōs mitteret, it seemed best to him to send envoys;

B. G. 1, 34, 1.

The infinitive subject is especially common with impersonal verbs: as, *peccāre licet nēmīnī, no one is at liberty to sin; Par. 20.*

^{*} **357.** As the subject may be expressed by the personal ending of the verb, a sentence may consist of a single word: as, *vēnit, he came.*

358. The Predicate is a finite verb or an infinitive; or, it may be a form of the verb *sum* (or a verb of similar meaning) with a predicate noun or adjective defining or describing the subject: as, *Caesar imperātor erat, Caesar was commander; fortissimī sunt Belgae, the Belgians are the bravest.*

359. The verb *sum*, when used in this way, is called a *copula*. Other verbs are so used in the passive with predicate nouns and adjectives; these are *fiō, become, videor, seem*, and verbs meaning *to name, choose, regard*, etc.: —

hī cōsulēs factī sunt, these became consuls; Cat. M. 14.

amicus appellātus erat, he had been called a friend; B. G. 1, 3, 4.

360. The Predicate is rarely omitted unless it may be easily supplied from the context: as, *haec hāctenus (sc. dixī), so much for that; Att. 5, 13, 2.* But forms of the auxiliary verb *sum* are often omitted: as, *colōniae dēductae (sc. sunt), colonies were founded; Liv. 10, 1, 1.*

PHRASE

361. A Phrase is a group of two or more words connected in sense and not containing a finite verb (i.e. any form of the indicative, subjunctive, or imperative): as, *cottidiānīs proeliīs, in daily battles; ab extrēmīs Galliae finibus, from the very borders of Gaul; proeliō dēcertāre, to contend in battle.*

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

362. Sentences are classified according to their meaning as follows: —

Declarative:

posterō diē castra movent, *on the next day they move their camp;*

B. G. 1, 15, 1.

Interrogative:

quis est mē mītiōr? *who is gentler than I?* Cat. 4, 11.

Imperative or Hortatory:

cōsulite vōbīs, *take counsel for yourselves;* Cat. 4, 3.

hōs latrōnēs interficiāmus, *let us kill these robbers;* B. G. 7, 38, 8.

Exclamatory:

utinam cōpiās ēdūxisset! *would that he had led out his forces!* Cat. 2, 4.

tē in tantās aerumnās incidisse! *to think that you fell into such misery!* Fam. 14, 1, 1.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

363. Interrogative Sentences are of various forms. They may contain no interrogative word: as, **vīs pugnāre?** *do you want to fight?* Pl. Rud. 1011. The lack of an interrogative word is rather common if the question contains the negative **nōn**: as, **patēre tua cōsilia nōn sentīs?** *you don't see that your schemes are known?* Cat. 1, 1. It is often doubtful whether such sentences are interrogative, exclamatory, or declarative.

Or, they may be introduced as follows: —

364. (a) by an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb:—

quid agis? *what are you doing?* Cat. 1, 27.

quāli fidē exīstimātis eōs esse? *what sort of honor do you think they have?* Font. 31.

cūr loquimur? *why do we speak?* Cat. 2, 17.

365. (b) by the enclitic **-ne** attached to the emphatic word, usually the first in the sentence: as, **potestne tibi haec lūx esse iūcunda?** *can this light of day be pleasant to you?* Cat. 1, 15. Sentences thus introduced may be non-committal as to the

expected answer; or they may expect an affirmative answer; or, less often, a negative answer. The enclitic *-ne* is sometimes attached to other interrogative words: as, *utrumne*, *whether*. It sometimes loses its vowel: as, *itan*, for *itane*; *vidēn*, for *vidēsne*.

366. (c) by *nōnne*, expecting an affirmative answer: —

nōnne meministi? *don't you remember?* Fin. 2, 10.

nōnne hunc in vincla dūcī imperābis? *won't you order him to be put into prison?* Cat. 1, 27.

367. (d) by *num*, expecting a negative answer: —

num barbarōrum Rōmulus rēx fuit? *was Romulus a king of barbarians?* Rep. 1, 58.

num infitiārī pōtes? *can you deny?* Cat. 1, 7.

368. (e) by *an*; this is especially common in argumentative language, introducing questions which are purely rhetorical and often exclamatory: as, *an vērō P. Scīpiō Ti. Gracchum privātus interfēcīt?* *did Publius Scipio, a private citizen, really cause the death of Tiberius Gracchus?* Cat. 1, 3.

369. (f) by *ecquis* (adjective, *ecquī*) and, rarely, by *ecquandō*: —

ecquis hīc est? *is anyone here?* Pl. Am. 1020.

ecquī metus? *have you any fear?* Verr. 4, 18.

ecquandō hīs dē rēbus tālēs virōs audītūrōs existimāstī? *did you think that such men would ever hear about these things?* Verr. 2, 43.

ANSWERS

370. The answer *yes* is expressed by repetition of the verb of the question: as, *valetne?* *is he well?* *valet*, *he is*; *fierīne potest?* *can it be done?* *potest*, *yes*; or by an adverb, *etiam*; *ita*, *sānē*, *sīc*, *vērō*, etc.: —

numquid vīs? *is there anything you want?* *etiam*, *yes*; Pl. Am. 544.

illa maneat? *is she to remain?* *sīc*, *yes*; Ter. Ph. 813.

371. The answer *no* is expressed by repetition of the verb of the question with a negative; as, *possumusne esse tūtī?* *can*

we be safe? **nōn possumus**, *no*; Phil. 12, 27; or by an adverb, **nōn, minimē**, etc.: —

vēnitne? *has he come?* **nōn**, *no*; Pl. Ps. 1067.

an haec contemnitis? *do you despise these things?* **minimē**, *by no means*; De Or. 2, 295.

ALTERNATIVE QUESTIONS

372. In Alternative Questions the first member is introduced by **utrum** or **-ne**, or, especially in early Latin, has no introductory word; the second member is introduced by **an**:—

utrum ea vestra an nostra culpa est? *is this your fault or ours?*

Acad. 2, 95.

servosne es an liber? *are you a slave or free?* Pl. Am. 343.

Tacitus es an Plinius? *are you Tacitus or Pliny?* Plin. Ep. 9, 23, 3.

373. If the second member is a mere negation of the first, it consists simply of **an nōn** or, rarely (but often in *indirect questions*), **necne**: —

pater eius rediit an nōn? *has his father returned or not?* Ter. Ph. 147.

sunt haec tua verba necne? *are these your words or not?* Tusc. 3, 41.

374. Rarely an introductory **utrum** precedes an alternative question, the two members being introduced by **-ne** and **an**: as, **utrum cēnsēs illum tuamne dē sē ōratiōnem libentius auditūrum fuisse an meam?** *do you think that he would have heard your speech about himself with greater pleasure or mine?* Fin. 2, 60.

375. The two members are sometimes introduced by **-ne . . . -ne**: as, **versāns Siculisne resideret arvis Italāsne capesseret ōrās**, *deliberating whether he should settle in the Sicilian fields or make his way to the Italian shores*; Aen. 5, 702.

376. The particle **-ne** is sometimes attached to **utrum** in the first member or to **an** in the second: —

utrumne iussī persequēmur ōtium an hunc labōrem? *shall I obediently give myself to leisure or undergo this toil?* Hor. Epod. 1, 7.

cum interrogētur tria pauca sint anne multa, *since it is asked whether three are few or many*, Acad. 1, 93.

377. A single question is sometimes introduced by *utrum*, the second member being suppressed: as, *utrum in clārissimīs est cīvibus is? is he among the noblest citizens?* Flacc. 45.

For single questions introduced by *an* see 368.

378. Single questions sometimes contain alternative details; the question is, not which thing is true, but whether either is true. These, therefore, are not alternative questions and do not contain the alternative particles: —

quaerō num id iniūstē aut improbē fēcerit, I ask whether he did this either unjustly or dishonestly; Off. 3, 54.

num Homērum, num Hēsiodum coēgit obmūtēscere senectūs? did old age compel either Homer or Hesiod to become silent? Cat. M. 23.

379. An alternative question may contain more than two members; all but the first are regularly introduced by *an*: as, *utrum hostem an vōs an fortūnam utriusque populī ignōrātis? are you ignorant of the enemy or of yourselves or of the fortunes of the two peoples?* Liv. 21, 10, 6.

SYNTAX OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

SYNTAX OF NOUNS

APPOSITIVES

380. A noun meaning the same person or thing as another noun or pronoun and used in combination with it, usually for the purpose of identification or description, is called an Appositive and is said to be in Apposition.

381. An Appositive agrees with its noun or pronoun in case and, if possible, also in number and gender: —

P. Scipiō, pontifex maximus, Publius Scipio, pontifex maximus; Cat. 1, 3.

Iovī Statōrī, antiquissimō cūstōdī hūius urbis, to Jupiter Stator, the most ancient guardian of this city; Cat. 1, 11.

Themistoclēs vēnī ad tē, I, Themistocles, have come to you; Nep. Them. 9.

historia, magistra vitæ, history, the teacher of life; De Or. 2, 36.

ut omittam illās omnium doctrinārum inventricēs, Athēnās, to say nothing of Athens, that discoverer of all learning; De Or. 1, 13.

382. An Appositive may denote time or cause or other ideas usually denoted by subordinate clauses: —

aedem Salūtis dictātor dēdicāvit, he dedicated the temple of Safety when he was dictator; Liv. 10, 1, 9.

fortūna praemia vōbis ea victōribus prōpōnit, Fortune offers you these rewards if you conquer; Liv. 21, 43, 5.

383. An Appositive usually follows its noun, but may precede: as, *gravissimus auctor Catō, Cato, an authority of the greatest weight; Tusc. 4, 3.* (See also **381**, example from *De Or. 1, 13.*)

384. A noun or pronoun is sometimes accompanied by an appositive which denotes only a part of the whole denoted by the noun or pronoun. This is called Partitive Apposition. Especially common in this construction are *quisque, uterque, alius* — *alius*, and *alter* — *alter*: —

quōs Poenus in civitatēs quemque suās dīmisit, whom the Carthaginian sent away, each to his own state; Liv. 21, 48, 2.

decemvirī alius in aliam partem castrōrum discurrunt, the decemvirs hurried one to one part of the camp, another to another; Liv. 3, 50, 12.

385. In poetry and late prose the accusative is sometimes used in apposition with a clause: —

iaculum ēmittit in aurās, principium pugnae, he hurled his javelin into the air, the beginning of the fight; Aen. 9, 53.

dēserunt tribūnal manūs intentantēs, causam discordiae, they abandon the tribunal shaking their fists, a cause of dissension; Tac. Ann. 1, 27.

386. A noun in apposition with a locative is put in the ablative with or without the preposition *in* (see **612**).

The preposition is regularly used with appositives of nouns denoting place *to which* or *from which*: —

Tarquiniōs, in urbem flōrentissimam, to Tarquinii, a very prosperous city; Rep. 2, 34.

Tusculō, ex clārissimō mūnicipiō, from Tusculum, a very famous town; Font. 4.

387. An Infinitive or a Clause may be used as an appositive:—

hoc admirātus sum, mentionem tē hērēditātum ausum esse facere,
I wondered at this, that you dared to mention inheritances;
 Phil. 2, 42.

Caesar senātus in eum beneficia commemorāvit, quod rēx appellātus
esset, Caesar mentioned the kindness of the senate toward him,
the fact that he had been called king; B. G. 1, 43, 4.

id agunt, ut viri boni esse videantur, they strive for this, that they
may seem to be good men; Off. 1, 41.

388. A verb sometimes agrees, not with its subject, but with an appositive of the subject; this is the regular construction if the appositive is *urbs*, *oppidum*, or *civitas*, and is common with cases of partitive apposition:—

Corinthus, tōtius Graeciae lūmen, exstinctum esse voluērunt, they
wanted Corinth, the light of all Greece, to be extinguished; Manil.

11.

Corioli oppidum captum, Corioli-town was taken; Liv. 2, 33, 9.

duae res maximae, altera alteri defuit, the two most important things
were lacking, one to one of them, the other to the other; Brut. 204.

PREDICATE NOUNS

389. A Predicate Noun agrees in case and, if possible, in number and gender with the noun which it defines or describes:—

stilus optimus dicendī magister (est), the pen is the best teacher of
eloquence; De Or. 1, 150.

vita rustica parsimoniae magistra est, country life is the teacher of
thrift; Rosc. Am. 75.

cōsulēs creantur Caesar et Servilius, Caesar and Servilius are
elected consuls; B. C. 3, 1, 1.

For the use of the Predicate Nominative see **358, 359.**

390. A predicate noun (or adjective) with an infinitive (except the historical and complementary infinitives) is regu-

larly in the accusative, whether the infinitive has an expressed subject or not: —

nōn est amīcī tālem esse, it is not the part of a friend to act so;

Lael. 59.

sī vōs vultis perhibērī probōs, if you want to be held in honor;

Ter. Ad. 504.

hoc est patrem esse? is this being a father? Ter. Ad. 707.

But very rarely, and almost always in poetry, when the subject accusative is omitted, the predicate nominative is used: —

*uxor invicti Iovis esse nescis, you don't know that you are the wife of
unconquered Jove; Hor. C. 3, 27, 73.*

ait fuisse nāvium celerrimus, it says it was the swiftest of boats; Catull. 4, 2.

For the use of a predicate noun or adjective with a complementary infinitive see 951.

391. With impersonal verbs which take a subject infinitive and a dative of the person, if the subject of the infinitive is not expressed, a predicate noun or adjective may be in the dative: —

licuit esse ōtiōsō Themistoclī, Themistocles might have been lazy;

Tusc. 1, 33.

*vōbīs necesse est fortibus virīs esse, it is necessary for you to be
brave men; Liv. 21, 44, 8.*

*nostrāpte culpā facimus ut malis expediat esse, by our own fault
we make it profitable to be bad; Ter. Ph. 766.*

392. A predicate noun in the accusative is often used in connection with the direct object of verbs meaning *to make, choose, call*, etc.: —

Hamilcarem imperātōrem fēcērunt, they made Hamilcar general;

Nep. Hamil. 2.

mē augurem nōmināvērunt, they named me augur; Phil. 2, 4.

ducem sē praeibuit, he offered himself as leader; Vat. 33.

393. With the phrase *nōmen esse*, the name, which would naturally be in the predicate nominative or accusative, is often put in the dative: as, *Faustulō fuisse nōmen ferunt, they say his name was Faustus; Liv. 4, 4, 10.*

394. A predicate noun is rarely used in the ablative: as, *Dolābellā hoste dēcrētō*, *Dolabella having been voted an enemy*; Phil. 11, 16.

395. An infinitive or a clause may be used as a predicate noun:—

vivere est cōgitāre, *to live is to think*; Tusc. 5, 111.

altera est rēs ut rēs gerās magnās, *the other thing is that you do great deeds*; Off. 1, 66.

396. A verb sometimes agrees, not with its subject, but with a predicate noun:—

puerī Trōiānum dīcitur agmen, *the boys are called the Trojan band*; Aen. 5, 602.

nōn omnis error stultitia dicenda est, *not every mistake is to be called folly*; Div. 2, 89.

contentum suis rēbus esse maximae sunt divitiae, *to be content with one's own possessions is the greatest wealth*; Par. 51.

The predicate uses of the genitive, dative, and ablative are treated under the Cases.

CASES OF NOUNS

The principles here stated apply not only to nouns but also to all other declined substantives, — i.e. to pronouns, and to adjectives and participles used as nouns.

NOMINATIVE AND VOCATIVE CASES

397. The nominative is used as the *subject* of a finite verb and of the historical infinitive (see **963**):—

Caesar ita respondit, *Caesar replied as follows*; B. G. 1, 14, 1.

Appius iūs dicere, *Appius pronounced judgment*; Liv. 2, 27, 1.

398. The nominative is used also as the *case of address*, and, when used in this way, is called the Vocative.

Stems in -o of the second declension are the only ones which have a special form for the vocative:—

quō usque tandem abūtēre, Catilīna, patientiā nostrā? *tell us, Catiline, how long will you abuse our patience?* Cat. 1, 1.

rēs omnis mihi tēcum erit, Hortēnsī, *all my attention will be given to you, Hortensius*; Verr. a. pr. 33.

But the nominative of o-stems is sometimes used as a case of address: as, *audī tū, populus Albānus, hear, ye people of Alba*; Liv. 1, 24, 7. So, also, an adjective in agreement with a vocative or an appositive of a vocative: as, *nāte, mea magna potentia sōlus, my son, thou alone my great power*; Aen. 1, 664.

399. The nominative is sometimes used in exclamations, usually accompanied by an interjection:—

Ō fēstus diēs! O joyful day! Ter. Eun. 560.

Ō frūstrā suscepti labōrēs! O toils in vain endured! Mil. 94.

prō cūria inversique mōrēs! alas, the senate-house and our perverted nature! Hor. C. 3, 5, 7.

In these cases the nominative may be regarded as the subject of a verb to be supplied.

GENITIVE CASE

400. The Genitive is used with substantives, adjectives, and verbs, and, very rarely, with adverbs.

Genitive with Substantives and Adjectives

Possessive Genitive

401. The Possessive Genitive is used to denote not only actual ownership but also *origin, cause, place*, etc.:—

potentia Pompēi, Pompey's power; Sall. Cat. 19.

clāmor oppidānōrum, the shouts of the townsmen; Liv. 2, 33, 8.

Canachi signa, statues by Canachus; Brut. 70.

bellum Venetōrum, the war with the Veneti; B. G. 3, 16, 1.

Trasumenni pugna, the battle of Trasumennus; Liv. 23, 43, 4.

402. When the Possessive Genitive denotes the person who does the act indicated by the noun on which it depends, it is called a Subjective Genitive:—

Caesaris adventus, the arrival of Caesar; B. G. 6, 41, 4.

rēliquiās Danaum, the remains left by the Greeks; Aen. 1, 30.

403. The possessive adjective is regularly used instead of the possessive genitive of a personal or reflexive pronoun (for

exceptions see 623); if there is a qualifying word it agrees with the implied genitive:—

ad vestram omnium caedem, for the murder of all of you; Cat. 4, 4.
tuum studium adulescentis, your zeal when you were young; Fam. 15,

13, 1.

tuam ipsius amicitiam, your own friendship; Verr. 3, 7.

404. The possessive idea is often expressed by an adjective; *aliēnus* is always used instead of the genitive of *alius*:—

servili tumultū, in the insurrection of the slaves; B. G. 1, 40, 5.

aliēna virtūs, another's courage; Sall. Cat. 7, 2.

405. The repetition of a noun governing two possessive genitives where the English uses "*that*" is regularly avoided: as, *quis est quī possit cōferre vītam Trebōnī cum Dolābellae? who is there who could compare the life of Trebonius with that of Dolabella? Phil. 11, 9.*

406. For the sake of brevity the possessor is sometimes put in place of the thing possessed: as, *vidētisne captīvōrum ōrātiōnem cum perfugīs convenīre? do you see that the talk of the captives agrees with that of the deserters? B. C. 2, 39, 2.*

407. In a few common phrases the noun on which the genitive depends is sometimes omitted:—

Hectoris Andromachē, Hector's wife, Andromache; Aen. 3, 319.

Hasdrubal Hamilcaris, Hasdrubal, son of Hamilcar; Liv. 26, 17, 4.

Flaccus Claudī, Flaccus, the slave of Claudius; Ter. Ph. Didasc.

ventum erat ad Vestae, we had come to the temple of Vesta; Hor. S. 1, 9, 35.

408. The Possessive Genitive is often used in the predicate with *sum* or *faciō*:—

omnia hostium erant, all things belonged to the enemy; Liv. 6, 40, 17.
neque Galliam potius esse Ariovisti quam populī Rōmānī, and that Gaul did not belong to Ariovistus more than to the Roman people; B. G. 1, 45, 1.

ōram Rōmānae diciōnis fēcit, he brought the coast under Roman rule; Liv. 21, 60, 3.

This construction is especially common when the subject of the verb is an infinitive or a clause:—

stulti erat spērāre, it was the part of a fool to hope; Phil. 2, 23.

est cōsulis vidēre quid agātur, it is the consul's duty to see what is being done; Mur. 4.

negāvit mōris esse Graecōrum ut in conviviō virōrum accumberent mulierēs, he said it was not the custom of the Greeks for women to recline at a man's dinner; Verr. 1, 66.

409. The genitive with *causā, grātiā, ergō, tenus, instar, prīdiē*, and *postridiē* is of possessive origin:—

amicitiæ causā, by reason of their friendship; B. G. 1, 39, 2.

illius ergō, on his account; Aen. 6, 670.

laterum tenus, as far as the sides; Aen. 10, 210.

instar montis equum, a horse like a mountain; Aen. 2, 15.

prīdiē eius diēi, on the day before this day; B. G. 1, 47, 2.

410. Certain adjectives meaning *similarity* or *connection* and their opposites sometimes take the Possessive Genitive; so, *similis, dissimilis, contrārius, pār, dispār, proprius, aliēnus*, etc. In this construction the adjective is treated as a noun.

Genitive of Definition

411. The Genitive is sometimes used to define a word of general meaning; this is called also the Appositional Genitive:—

Trōiae urbem (the regular phrase would be *Trōiam urbem*), *the city of Troy*; Aen. 1, 565.

haec vōx voluptātis, this word "pleasure"; Fin. 2, 6.

nūllam virtūs aliam mercēdem dēsiderat praeter hanc laudis et glōriae, virtue desires no other reward beyond this one of praise and glory; Arch. 28.

Genitive of the Whole

412. The Genitive denoting *the whole* is used with substantives, adjectives, and adverbs which denote a part:—

eōrum ūna pars, one part of them; B. G. 1, 1, 5.

quis omnium mortālium? who of all men? Verr. 5, 179.

aliquid bonī, something good; Ter. And. 398.

sapientum octāvus, the eighth of the wise men; Hor. S. 2, 3, 296.

- ō maior iuvenum, *O elder of the youths*; Hor. A. P. 366.
 primōs civitātis, *the first men of the state*; B. G. 2, 3, 1.
 satis eloquentiae, sapientiae parum, *enough eloquence, too little wisdom*; Sall. Cat. 5, 4.
 ubinam gentium sumus? *where in the world are we?* Cat. 1, 9.
 eō miseriarum, *to that pitch of misery*; Sall. Jug. 14, 3.

413. The Genitive of the Whole is rarely used with the positive of a descriptive adjective:—

- peditum expediti, *the light-armed infantry*; Liv. 37, 18, 8.
 sancte deōrum, *thou holy one of the gods*; Aen. 4, 576.

414. Adjectives of the third declension are rarely found in this construction unless used in combination with an adjective of the first and second declensions: as, nihil solidi, nihil eminentis, *no solidity, no projection*; N. D. 1, 75.

415. This construction is found sometimes in the predicate:—

- quid est tui cōsili? *what is your advice?* Fam. 11, 1, 3.
 quid est huic reliqui? *what is left for him?* Sull. 89.
 milites nihil reliqui victis fecere, *the soldiers left nothing to the conquered*; Sall. Cat. 11, 7.

416. Uterque, *each* (of two), *both*, when used with a pronoun, or, sometimes, with a noun and a pronoun combined, takes the genitive; with a noun it is regularly used as an adjective in agreement:—

- uterque nostrum, *each one of us*; Sull. 13.
 quarum civitatum utraque, *each of these states*; Verr. 5, 56.
 uterque dux, *each commander*; Marc. 24.

The plural is used either with the genitive or in agreement.

417. In certain phrases where the English uses *of*, an adjective in agreement is used instead of the Genitive of the Whole; the most common adjectives thus used are extrēmus, imus, medius, multus, nullus, omnis, plerique, quot, reliquus, summus, tot, tōtus, and ultimus:—

- extrēmā hieme, mediā aestate, *at the end of winter, in the middle of summer*; Manil. 35.
 hi omnēs, *all of these*; B. G. 1, 1, 2.

418. With cardinal numerals (except *mille*) and with *quidam*, a *certain one*, the ablative with *ē*, *ex*, or *dē* is regularly used instead of the genitive:—

ūnus ex istis, the only one of these; Cat. 3, 16.

quidam dē collēgis nostris, one of our colleagues; Fam. 11, 21, 5.

The genitive is sometimes used with *ūnus* and *quidam*.

419. An extension of the Genitive of the Whole is found in such passages as the following:—

angusta viārum, the narrow streets; Aen. 2, 332.

in aequō campī, on the level plain; Liv. 5, 38, 4.

Genitive of Material

420. The Genitive is used to denote *material*. This is a development of the Genitive of the Whole:—

flūmen verbōrum, a stream of words; Or. 53.

obtortī circulus aurī, a chain of twisted gold; Aen. 5, 559.

Genitive of Quality

421. The Genitive is sometimes used to denote a *quality*, but only when it is accompanied by a qualifying word.

There is often no distinction between the genitive and ablative in this sense, but the genitive regularly denotes a quality which is permanent and usually one that is internal rather than external:—

hominēs magnae virtūtis, men of great courage; B. G. 2, 15, 5.

ēius modī cōsiliū, a plan of this sort; B. G. 5, 29, 5.

plūrimārum palmārum gladiātor, a gladiator of many victories;
Rosc. Am. 17.

This genitive is sometimes used in the predicate:—

magnae habitus auctōritātis, regarded as a man of great influence;

B. G. 7, 77, 3.

nōtus animī paterni, known for his paternal spirit; Hor. C. 2, 2, 6.

422. The Genitive of Quality is rarely used in direct connection with a proper name; it is usually attached to a common noun in apposition with the proper name: —

Catō, adulēscēns nullius cōsili, Cato, a young man of no judgment;
Q. Fr. 1, 2, 15.

Hannibalem, annōrum novem, Hannibal, when nine years old;
Liv. 21, 1, 4.

423. When the Genitive of Quality denotes *length, height, etc.*, it is sometimes called the Genitive of Measure: as, *scrobēs trium in altitudinem pedum, trenches three feet deep;* B. G. 7, 73, 5.

424. One form of the Genitive of Quality is the use of certain substantives and, more frequently, adjectives, to denote *indefinite value*: —

nōn flocci faciō, I don't care a straw; Att. 13, 50, 3.

nōlī spectāre quanti homo sit; parvī enim preti est quī tam nihili est, don't consider how much the man is worth, for he is of small value who is so worthless; Q. Fr. 1, 2, 14.

Objective Genitive

425. The genitive is used to denote the object of an action implied in a noun, an adjective, or a participle used as an adjective: —

cupidō glōriæ, desire for glory; Sall. Cat. 7, 3.

odium potentiae nobilitātis, hatred of the power of the nobility; Sall. Jug. 30, 3.

Helvētiōrum iniūriæ populi Rōmāni, the wrongs done by the Helvetians to the Roman people; B. G. 1, 30. (*Helvētiōrum* is subjective, *populi* is objective.)

cupidum rērum novārum, desirous of a revolution; B. G. 1, 18, 3.

memorem vestri, oblitum sui, mindful of you, forgetful of himself;
Cat. 4, 19.

tempestātum potentem, ruling the storms; Aen. 1, 80.

amantissimōs rei publicæ virōs, men most devoted to the state;
Cat. 3, 5.

Dignus, worthy, and indignus, unworthy, are rarely used with the genitive; see 587.

426. With a present participle the genitive denotes a permanent quality, the accusative a particular instance.

427. In place of the Objective Genitive we sometimes find a possessive adjective, a descriptive adjective, or a prepositional phrase: —

neque neglegentiā tuā neque odiō id fēcit tuō, he did this neither from neglect nor hatred of you; Ter. Ph. 1016.

metus hostilis, fear of the enemy; Sall. Jug. 41, 2.

odium in Antōnium, hatred of Antony; Fam. 10, 5, 3. (Cf. ēreptae virginis irā, in wrath at the loss of the maiden; Aen. 2, 413.)

Genitive of Specification

428. The Genitive of Specification is used with a few nouns and many adjectives to denote that with reference to which a quality exists.

This construction is an extension of the Objective Genitive and is particularly common in the poets and later prose-writers: —

praestantiam virtūtis, preëminence in virtue; Lael. 70.

fessī rērum, tired of trouble; Aen. 1, 178.

integer vitae scelerisque pūrus, upright in life and free from guilt; Hor. C. 1, 22, 1.

linguae ferocēs, bold of tongue; Tac. H. 1, 35.

429. Either the genitive or the ablative is used with adjectives denoting *plenty* or *want*; as, *plēnus, dīves, onustus, refer-tus, expers, inānis*, and *inops*.

430. *Animi*, *in mind* (really a locative), and, by analogy, the genitive *mentis* are used with adjectives and verbs which express mental condition: —

animī mātūrus, mature in mind; Aen. 9, 246.

sānua mentis aut animī, sound in mind or heart; Plaut. Trin. 454.

Antiphō mē excruciat animī, Antipho distresses my heart; Ter. Ph. 187.

Genitive with Verbs

Genitive of Charge or Penalty

431. Verbs meaning *to accuse, condemn, or acquit* take a genitive of the *charge* and, sometimes, a genitive of the *penalty*: — *Digitized by Microsoft®*

accūsātus est prōditiōnis, *he was accused of treason*; Nep. Milt. 7, 5.
pecūniae publicae est condemnātus, *he was condemned for embezzlement of the public funds*; Flacc. 43.

videō nōn tē absolūtum esse improbitātis, sed illōs damnātōs esse caedis, *I see not that you were acquitted of outrage, but that they were condemned for murder*; Veir. 1, 72.

ut damnārentur vōtōrum, *that they be condemned to pay their vows*; Liv. 27, 45, 8.

capitis condemnārī, *to be condemned to death*; Rabir. 12.

This use probably originated in the combination of **crimine**, or a similar word, with the genitive.

432. The charge is sometimes expressed by **dē** with the ablative, or by an ablative like **crimine** with the genitive. The Genitive of the Penalty is confined in prose to **capitis, pecūniae, quantī**, and multiples like **dupli**. Of other words the ablative is used.

433. The Genitive of the Charge or Penalty is used also with the noun **reus**:—

pecūniarū repetundarū reus, *charged with extortion*; Sall. Cat. 18, 3.
vōtī reus, *condemned to pay his vow*; Aen. 5, 237.

Genitive with **rēfert** and **interest**

434. With the impersonal verbs **rēfert** and **interest**, the person or thing affected, if of the third person and not reflexive, is expressed by the genitive; if of the first or second person or of the third person reflexive, by the ablative singular feminine of the possessive adjective, — **meā, tuā, nostrā, vestrā, or suā**. **Rēfert** is characteristic of early Latin, **interest** of later Latin, beginning with Cicero. The degree of interest is expressed by the genitive of value or by an adverb:—

quid tuā id rēfert? **magnī**, *what difference does that make to you?*
much; Ter. Ph. 723.

faciendum aliquid quod illōrum magis quam suā rētulisse vidērētur,
something must be done which should seem more for their good than his own; Sall. Jug. 11, 1.

videō quid meā intersit, quid utriusque nostrum, I see what is for my advantage, what for the advantage of us both; Fam. 7, 23, 4.

The verb is sometimes omitted: *as, quid id nostrā? what's that to us? Ter. Ph. 940.*

435. The person is rarely expressed by the dative or by *ad* with the accusative: —

quid rēferat intrā nātūrae finis viventi? what difference does it make to one living within the bounds of nature? Hor. S. 1, 1, 49.

quid ad mē aut ad meam rem rēfert? what difference does it make to me or to my interests? Pl. Pers. 513.

Genitive with Verbs of Plenty or Want

436. The genitive is sometimes used with verbs, as it is with adjectives, meaning *plenty* or *want*: —

implentur Bacchī, they fill themselves with wine; Aen. 1, 215.

egeō cōnsili, I need advice; Att. 7, 22, 2.

For the ablative with these verbs see **528**.

437. With verbs meaning *separation*, the ablative is the regular construction, but the genitive is sometimes found in poetry: —

mē labōrum levās, you relieve me of my troubles; Pl. Rud. 247.

dēsine querellārum, cease your complaints; Hor. C. 2, 9, 17.

abstinētō irārum, refrain from anger; Hor. C. 3, 27, 69.

Objective Genitive with Verbs of Mental Action or Sensation

Verbs of Remembering, Forgetting, or Reminding

438. *Meminī* and *reminīscor*, when they mean *to be mindful of* (also *meminī* meaning *to mention*) and *oblīvīscor*, when it means *to be unmindful of*, take the genitive: —

nec mē meminisse pigēbit Elissae, I shall not regret the thought of Elissa; Aen. 4, 335.

reminīscerētur virtūtis Helvētiōrum, let him bear in mind the courage of the Helvetians; B. G. 1, 13, 4.

Achillam, cūius suprà meminimus, Achilles, whom I mentioned above; B. C. 3, 108, 2.

oblīvīscere caedis atque incendiōrum, dismiss the thought of murder and fires; Cat.

The genitive is used also with the impersonal expression *venit in mentem*: as, *venit mihi Platōnis in mentem*, *the thought of Plato comes to my mind*; Fin. 5, 2.

439. *Memini* and *reminiscor*, when they mean literally *to remember, to retain in the mind*, and *obliscor*, when it means literally *to forget*, take the accusative:—

Cinnam memini, *I remember Cinna*; Phil. 5, 17.

reminiscēns pristini temporis acerbitatem, *remembering the bitterness of the past*; Nep. Alc. 6, 3.

tōtam causam oblitus est, *he forgot the whole case*; Brut. 217.

440. The distinction which has been given is not always observed, especially in the case of *reminiscor*, which is comparatively rare and usually takes the accusative. *Obliscor* takes only the genitive of a *person*. Neuter pronouns and adjectives are regularly in the accusative.

441. *Recordor*, *remember*, takes *dē* and the ablative of a *person*; of a *thing* either *dē* and the ablative, the accusative, or, very rarely in classical Latin, the genitive: as, *flagitiōrum suōrum recordābitur*, *he will remember his crimes*; Pison. 12.

442. The verbs of *reminding*, — *admoneō*, *commoneō*, and *commonefaciō*, — take the accusative of the person reminded; the *thing* is expressed by the genitive, by *dē* with the ablative, or, if it is a neuter pronoun and sometimes even if it is a noun, by the¹ accusative; the same constructions occur with *moneō*, except that the genitive is very rare:—

admonēbat alium egestātis, alium cupiditātis suae, *he reminded one of his poverty, another of his greed*; Sall. Cat. 21, 4.

meārum mē miseriārum commonēs, *you remind me of my misery*; Pl. Rud. 743.

commonefacere quemque benefici sui, *he reminded each one of his kindness*; Sall. Jug. 49, 4.

quod vōs lēx commonet, *that of which the law reminds you*; Verr. 3, 40.

eam rem nōs locus admonuit, *the place has reminded me of this thing*; Sall. Jug. 79, 1.

lēgātis perfidiae monitis, *the envoys being reminded of their treachery*;

Liv. 30, 37, 1. Digitized by Microsoft®

Verbs of Mental Sensation

443. **Misereor** and **miserescō**, *pity*, take the genitive:—

miserēmini sociōrum, *pity your allies*; Verr. 1, 72.

miserescite rēgis, *pity the king*; Aen. 8, 573.

444. The impersonal verbs **miseret**, **paenitet**, **piget**, **pudet**, and **taedet** take an accusative of the person who feels *pity*, etc., and a genitive of the person or thing toward which the feeling is directed:—

eōrum nōs miseret, *we pity them*; Mil. 92.

mē civitātis mōrum piget taedetque, *I am sick and tired of the morals of the state*; Sall. Jug. 4, 9.

The passive, **miserētur**, is sometimes used impersonally. All these verbs except **miseret** and **miserētur** may have as subject a neuter pronoun (almost without exception in the singular), an infinitive, or a **quod**-clause.

With **pudet** the genitive is sometimes used of the person *before whom* there is a feeling of shame: as, **nōs nē civium quidem hōrum pudet?** *not even before these citizens are we ashamed?* Liv. 22, 14, 4.

445. In poetry the genitive sometimes occurs with **cupiō**, **fastidiō** (used impersonally), **invidēō**, **mīror**, **studeō**, and **vereor** (once in prose, Att. 8, 4, 1).

Objective Genitive with potior

446. The genitive is sometimes used with **potior**, *get possession of*, which usually takes the ablative: as, **partis Siciliae potitus est**, *he became master of part of Sicily*; Nep. Dion. 5, 5. The phrase **rērum potiri** is common in the sense *to become*, or *to be*, *master of the situation*.

Tacitus uses rarely the same genitive with **apiscor** and **adipiscor**.

Genitive of Exclamation

447. Very rarely, in imitation of Greek, the genitive is used in *exclamations*: as, **foederis heu taciti**, *alas, the secret covenant*; Prop. 5, 7, 21.

DATIVE CASE

448. The Dative denotes *direction* or *connection*. It is used with verbs and adjectives, rarely with nouns and adverbs, and sometimes qualifies the sentence as a whole.

Dative with Verbs

Indirect Object

449. The Dative is used with many verbs, transitive or intransitive, to denote that toward which an action or feeling is directed.

Indirect Object with Transitive Verbs

450. With transitive verbs in the active voice the Dative of the Indirect Object is used in connection with the Accusative of the Direct Object; with the passive voice the direct object becomes the subject and the indirect object remains:—

litterās ā tē mihi reddidit, he gave me a letter from you; Fam. 2, 17, 1.
rēgi haec dīcite, tell the king this; Aen. 1, 137.

nūntiābantur haec Cūriōnī, these things were announced to Curio;
B. C. 2, 37, 1.

451. Verbs of *motion*, which regularly take the accusative with a preposition, sometimes take the dative:—

cum aliīs aliī subsidium ferrent, while they brought help to one another; B. G. 2, 26, 2.

rogās ut mea tibi scripta mittam, you ask me to send you my writings;
Fam. 1, 9, 23.

This construction is regularly confined to nouns denoting *persons*, but the poets sometimes use it with nouns of *place*:—

caelō capita ferentēs, raising their heads to heaven; Aen. 3, 678.

Carthāginī iam nōn ego nūntiōs mittam, no more shall I send messengers to Carthage; Hor. C. 4, 4, 69.

So, with an intransitive verb: *it clāmor caelō, the shout rises to the sky; Aen. 5, 451.*

452. With *scribō, write*, the person is either in the accusative with the preposition, or, less often, in the dative.

453. The verb *dōnō, present*, takes either the accusative of the thing and the dative of the person or the accusative of the person and the ablative of the thing:—

praedam militibus dōnat, he presents the booty to the soldiers; B. G. 7,
11, 9.

hunc civitāte dōnarunt, they presented him with citizenship; Arch. 5.

454. Verbs usually intransitive sometimes have a direct object in connection with the indirect:—

multī sē aliēnissimīs crēdīdērunt, many entrusted themselves to utter strangers; B. G. 6, 31, 4.

id eīs persuāsīt, he convinced them of this; B. G. 1, 2, 3.

equitēs imperat cīvitatibus, he demanded horsemen from the states; B. G. 6, 4, 6. (Cf. the passive use: *singulis cēnsōribus dēnārii trecentī imperātī sunt*, three hundred denarii were demanded of each censor; Verr. 2, 137.)

Indirect Object with Intransitive Verbs

455. The Dative of the Indirect Object is used with the following groups of intransitive verbs; in many cases the English uses a transitive verb with a direct object to express the same idea.

456. (a) Many verbs denoting a mental attitude or action; for example, verbs meaning to *advise, persuade, believe, command, obey, yield, envy, favor, flatter, help, injure, indulge, pardon, please, displease, serve, resist, spare, threaten, trust, and distrust*:—

an C. Trebōniō persuāsi? cui nē suādēre quidem ausus essem, have I persuaded Gaius Trebonius? whom I would not have dared even to advise; Phil. 2, 27.

huic legiōni Caesar et indulserat et cōfīdēbat, Caesar had indulged this legion and had confidence in it; B. G. 1, 40, 14.

457. Some verbs of these meanings take the accusative; e.g. *dēlectō, please; iubeō, order* (dative probably not before Tacitus); *iuvō, help; laedō, injure*.

Other verbs take either the accusative or the dative without apparent difference of meaning; e.g. *adūlor, fawn upon; deficiō, fail; dēspērō, despair of*.

458. The verbs *fīdō* and *cōfīdō*, *trust*, and *diffīdō*, *distrust*, sometimes take the ablative.

The verb *invidēō*, when it means *begrudge*, takes the dative of the *person*,—the dative, accusative, ablative (with or without a preposition), or (once) the genitive, of the *thing*; when it means *envy*, the dative of the *person* or the dative of the *thing* with the possessive genitive of the *person*.

459. Verbs of this class (denoting mental attitude or action), which take the dative, are used only *impersonally* in the passive, the dative being retained: —

hīs persuādērī nōn poterat, *they could not be persuaded*; B. G. 2, 10, 5.

cui parci potuit? *who could be spared?* Liv. 21, 14, 4.

Exceptions are very rare; e.g. *cūr invidēor?* *why am I envied?* Hor. A. P. 56.

460. Some *expressions* equivalent in meaning to verbs of this class take the dative; e.g. *audiēns esse*, or *dictō audiēns esse*, *to be obedient to*; *praestō esse* *to be on hand*; *fidem habēre*, *to have confidence in*; *mōrem gerere*, *to humor*.

461. Some nouns similar in meaning to verbs of this class take the dative: —

obtemperātiō lēgibus, *obedience to the laws*; Legg. 1, 42.

miseriīs suīs remedium, *a cure for their woes*; Sall. Cat. 40, 3.

insidiae cōsulī, *the plot against the consul*; Sall. Cat. 32, 1.

462. (b) The impersonal verbs, *libet*, *licet*, *convenit*, *conducit*, *expedit*, *liquet*, *accidit*, *contingit*, *evenit*: —

quibus licet iam esse fortunātissimīs, *who may now be most fortunate*;

B. G. 6, 35, 8.

sī quid accidat Rōmānīs, *if anything should happen to the Romans*;

B. G. 1, 18, 9.

463. (c) Some verbs denoting *union*, and, in poetry, verbs denoting *contention* or *difference*: —

potest hoc hominī huic haerēre peccātum? *can this crime be associated with this man?* Rosc. Am. 17.

tibi certat Amyntas, *Amyntas is your rival*; Ecl. 5, 8.

differt sermōnī, *it differs from prose*; Hor. S. 1, 4, 48.

Indirect Object with Compound Verbs

464. The Dative of Indirect Object is used with many verbs compounded with *ad*, *ante*, *circum*, *con*, *in*, *inter*, *ob*, *post*, *prae*, *sub*, and *super*. Some of these verbs are transitive, others intransitive, the former taking both direct and indirect objects: —

finitimīs bellum inferre, to make war on their neighbors; B. G. 1, 2, 4.
nōn solum interfuit iīs rēbus sed etiam praefuit, he not only took
 part in these matters but even took the lead; Fam. 1, 8, 1.

nec unquam succumbet inimicis, he will never yield to his enemies;
 Deiot. 36.

The dative with most compounds is due to the preposition; with others (e.g. *cōnfidō*, *trust*) it is due to the meaning of the simple verb.

465. If the meaning of the compound is such that there is no idea of direction, the verb takes a direct object; e.g. *interficiō*, *kill*.

In some compounds an original idea of direction has been lost, and the accusative is used; e.g. *aggredior*, *attack*; *obeō*, *undertake*; *oppugnō*, *oppose*.

To emphasize the idea of *motion* or *place* a prepositional phrase is often used with compounds:—

ut in gladium incumberet, so that he fell upon his sword; Inv. 154.

tamquam ad saxum adhaerescunt, they cling as if to a rock; Acad. 2, 8.

466. Some compounds take either the accusative of the thing and the dative of the person, or the accusative of the person and the ablative of the thing; e.g. *aspergō*, *circumdō*, *circumfundō*, *impertiō*, *induō*, *intercludō*:—

tibi haec licia circumdō, I put these threads around you; Ecl. 8, 75.

quinis castris oppidum circumdedit, he surrounded the town with five camps; B. C. 3, 9, 4.

467. Some compounds (e.g. *comparō*, *cōnferō*) take either the dative or *cum* with the ablative.

Some compounds take either the dative or the accusative without difference of meaning; e.g. *antecedō*, *praecurrō*, *invādō*.

468. The poets sometimes use the dative with verbs whose meaning is like that of compounds which take the dative; e.g. *superō* = *supersum*, *survive* (see 479); *excellō* = *praestō*, *surpass*.

469. The adjective *obvius* and the adverb *obviam* used in connection with a verb take the dative:—

cui māter sēsē tulit obviam, his mother came to meet him; Aen. 1, 314.

fit obviam Clōdiō, he meets Clodius; Mil. 29.

Dative of Reference

470. The dative is used with many verbs to denote the person or, rarely, the thing concerned in the action or condition expressed by the verb. The dative may denote actual interest, — i.e. advantage or disadvantage, — or a mere connection, more or less remote: —

mea domus tibi patet, mihi clausa est, my own house is open to you, is closed to me; Rosc. Am. 145.

cōsurrēxisse omnēs illi dicuntur, all are said to have risen in his honor; Cat. M. 63.

ut suae vitae cōsuleret, that he should consult for his own life; B. G. 7, 12, 3.

471. The Dative of Reference is often used loosely, having no connection with any single word, but denoting an interest in the fact as a whole: —

tālia iactantī procella vēlum adversa ferit, as he utters these words a blast strikes the sail athwart; Aen. 1, 102.

The dative thus used often takes the place of a Possessive Genitive qualifying a single word: —

sēsē Caesarī ad pedēs proiēcērunt, they threw themselves at Caesar's feet; B. G. 1, 31, 2.

iter Poenīs obstruere voluērunt, they wanted to block the march of the Carthaginians; Cat. M. 75.

472. The dative is used with verbs qualified by *bene*, *male*, and *satis*: —

bene facere rei pūblicae, to benefit the state; Sall. Cat. 3.

optimō virō male dicere, to speak ill of an excellent man; Deiot. 28.

operam dabō ut tibi satisfaciam, I shall endeavor to satisfy you; Att. 2, 4, 3.

473. The Dative of Reference is used of the person upon whose judgment a statement is based: —

erit ille mihi semper deus, he will always be a god in my eyes; Ecl. 1, 7.

Quintia fōrmōsa est multis, Quintia is beautiful in the eyes of many;

Catull. 86, 1. Digitized by Microsoft®

Closely connected with this is the use of the dative of participles to indicate the *point of view*: —

est urbe ēgressis tumulus, there is a hill as you come out of the city (for those coming out); Aen. 2, 713.

474. Many verbs (e.g. *cōsulō, metuō, prōspiciō*) take either the Accusative of Direct Object or the Dative of Reference, according to the meaning.

475. The Dative of Reference is sometimes attached to nouns: —

aut collō decus aut capiti, an ornament for the neck or head; Aen. 10, 135.
tribūniciam potestātem, mūnimentum libertātī, tribunician power, the bulwark of liberty; Liv. 3, 37, 5.

476. The Dative of Reference is sometimes used with *interjections*: —

ei mihi, ah me! Aen. 2, 274.
vae victis, woe to the conquered! Liv. 5, 48, 9.

Dative of Separation

477. The Dative of Reference (denoting advantage or disadvantage) is often used with verbs of *separation*; with nouns denoting *things* this construction is rare and is confined to poetry: —

aureum eī dētraxit amiculum, he took a golden mantle from him;
N. D. 3, 83.
hunc mihi timōrem ēripe, take this fear from me; Cat. 1, 18.
fessōs oculōs fūrāre labōrī, steal your weary eyes from toil; Aen. 5,
845.

The verb *interdicō, forbid*, takes the dative of the *person* and the accusative or ablative of the *thing*, or the accusative of the *person* and the ablative of the *thing*.

Ethical Dative

478. The dative of a personal pronoun is sometimes used in expressions of emotion or surprise to indicate a slight degree of interest in the statement as a whole; if of the second person it serves merely to call attention. This is a form of the Dative of Reference: —

quid mihi Celsus agit, *what is Celsus doing, I wonder*; Hor. Epis. 1, 3, 15.

at tibi repentē vēnit ad mē Caninius, *but look, Caninius suddenly came to me*; Fam. 9, 2, 1.

Dative of Possession

479. The dative is used with forms of **sum** to denote the *possessor*:—

contrōversia mihi fuit cum avunculō tuō, *I had a debate with your uncle*; Fin. 3, 6.

est hominī cum deō similitūdō, *man has a resemblance to God*; Legg. 1, 25.

The verbs **absum** and **dēsum**, *be wanting*, and **supersum**, *survive*, take the Dative of Possession.

For the dative with the phrase **nomen esse** see **393**.

Dative of Agent

480. The dative is sometimes used to denote the person who has something *to do* or who has something *done*.

This is a development of the Dative of Possession. It is the regular construction with the future passive participle, is common with the perfect passive participle and forms of the perfect passive system, and is used rarely with other passive forms:—

Caesarī omnia ūnō tempore erant agenda, *Caesar had everything to do at once*; B. G. 2, 20, 1.

mihi rēs prōvisa est, *I have the thing arranged*; Verr. 4, 91.

neque cernitur ūllī, *he is not seen by any one*; Aen. 1, 440.

481. To avoid ambiguity, the regular agent construction, the ablative with **ab**, is sometimes used with the gerundive: **as, eī ego ā mē referendam grātiām nōn putem?** *should I not think that I ought to show my gratitude to him?* Planc. 78.

482. The datives with **probor**, *be approved*, and **videor**, *seem*, are in origin Datives of Reference.

Dative of Purpose or Tendency

483. The dative is often used to express *purpose* or *tendency*. This is often found in combination with the Dative of Reference, denoting the person concerned:—

mūnerī mīsit, he sent it as a present; Nep. Att. 8, 6.

cecinit receptū, he gave the signal for a retreat; Tusc. 3, 33.

quīnque cohortēs castris praesidiō relinquit, he leaves five cohorts as a guard for the camp; B. G. 7, 60, 2.

paupertās probro habērī coepit, lack of wealth began to be considered a disgrace; Sall. Cat. 12, 1.

484. The indeclinable adjective *frūgī* is a dative of this sort:—

erō frūgī bonae, I shall be good for something; Pl. Ps. 468.

hominēs fortēs et frūgī, men brave and thrifty; Verr. 3, 67.

Also *cordī*, as in Verr. 1, 112, *mihi mea filia maximē cordī est*, my daughter is very dear to me.

485. The dative in this construction is sometimes attached to nouns:—

causam lacrimis, a reason for tears; Aen. 3, 305.

receptū signum, a signal for retreat; Phil. 13, 15.

486. The dative of the gerund and gerundive is sometimes used in this construction:—

cum solvendō civitatēs nōn essent, since the communities were not ready for payment (were not solvent); Fam. 3, 8, 2.

referundae ego habeo linguam natam gratiae, I have a tongue made to express gratitude; Pl. Pers. 428.

triumvirum coloniis dēducendis, a triumvir for founding colonies; Sall. Jug. 42, 1.

Dative with Adjectives

487. The dative with adjectives is like the Dative of Indirect Object with intransitive verbs; or, rarely, it is a Dative of Purpose or Tendency. It is used especially with adjectives denoting *fitness*, *likeness*, *nearness*, *service*, and their opposites

par similisque ceteris, *equal to and like the rest*; Sall. Cat. 14, 4.

proximī Germānīs, *next to the Germans*; B. G. 1, 1, 3.

vectigālēs sibi fēcērunt, *they made them tributary to themselves*;

B. G. 4, 3, 4.

causae est aliēnum, *it is damaging to the cause*; Caec. 24.

castris idōneum locum dēlēgit, *he selected a place suitable for a camp*;

B. G. 1, 49, 1.

. 488. Some adjectives (e.g. *benevolus*, *fīdēlis*, *idōneus*, *ūtilis*) take either the dative, or the accusative with a preposition.

489. For the Possessive Genitive with adjectives denoting *similarity* or *connection* see 410.

With *similis* the dramatists regularly use the genitive, later writers either the genitive or dative; Cicero uses the genitive of *persons* and either the genitive or the dative of *things*.

The pronoun *īdem* is regularly followed by *atque* or a relative clause, but in poetry sometimes takes the dative, like *similis*: as, *īdem facit occīdētī*, *he does the same thing as a murderer*; Hor. A. P. 467.

490. The adjectives *propior* and *proximus*, like the adverbs *prope*, *propius*, and *proximē*, sometimes take the accusative: —

propior montem, *nearer the hill*; Sall. Jug. 49, 1.

proximus mare ōceanum, *nearest the ocean*; B. G. 3, 7, 2.

491. Like the dative with adjectives is the occasional dative with adverbs: as, *congruenter nātūrae convenienterque vivere*, *to live in harmony and agreement with nature*; Fin. 3, 7, 26.

ACCUSATIVE CASE

492. The Accusative Case was first used as the direct object of a verb. The other uses are derived from that. It is connected chiefly with verbs, sometimes with adjectives to express extent, and rarely with nouns.

Direct Object

493. The Direct Object of a verb is in the accusative; it denotes either that which is *produced* or that which is *affected* by the action of the verb: —

duās legiōnēs cōnscrībit, *he enrolls two legions*; B. G. 1, 10, 3.
oppida sua omnia incendunt, *they burn all their towns*; B. G. 1, 5, 2.
nisi mē fallit, *unless I am deceived (it deceives me)*; Sest. 106.

494. In colloquial language a direct object is sometimes used with verbal nouns: as, *quid tibi istanc tãctiō est?* *what right have you to touch her?* Pl. Poen. 1308.

A Direct Object may be used also with the following verbs, which are usually intransitive:—

495. (a) Verbs denoting *feeling*, especially *grief*; e.g. *doleō*, *fleō*, *gaudeō*, *gemō*, *horreō*, *maereō*, and *queror*; also *iūrō*, *maneō*, *rīdeō*, *sitiō* and *taceō*:—

meum cāsum doluērunt, *they lamented my calamity*; Sest. 145.
quod Ariovistī crūdēlitātem horrērent, *because they dreaded the cruelty of Ariovistus*; B. G. 1, 32, 4.
quae manent victōs, *things which await the conquered*; Liv. 26, 13, 18.
sanguinem nostrum sitiēbat, *he thirsted for our blood*; Phil. 5, 20.

The poets use a direct object with a great variety of verbs usually intransitive; e.g. *ardēbat Alexim*, *he burned with love for Alexis*; Ecl. 2, 1.

496. (b) Intransitive verbs, usually denoting *motion*, when compounded with certain prepositions:—

sī insulam adisset, *if he should go to the island*; B. G. 4, 20, 2.
cīvēs quī circumstant senātum, *the citizens who stand about the senate*; Cat. 1, 21.
Caesar omnem agrum Picēnum percurrit, *Caesar overruns all Picenum*; B. C. 1, 15, 1.

For compounds taking either the dative or the accusative see **467**.

497. (c) Other intransitive verbs of *motion*; e.g. *ambulō*, *fugiō*, *nāvigō*, and the passive *vehor*:—

cum Xerxēs maria ambulāvisset, *terram nāvigāset*, *when Xerxes had walked the seas and sailed the land*; Fin. 2, 112.
mē lupus fūgit, *the wolf fled from me*; Hor. C. 1, 22, 9.
maria omnia vectī, *having journeyed over all the seas*; Aen. 1, 524.

498. Adjectives (originally present participles) ending in *-bundus* sometimes take a direct object: as, *vītābundus castra*, *avoiding the camp*; Liv. 25, 13, 4.

499. The passive voice of verbs meaning to *put on* is sometimes used reflexively in poetry and takes a direct object:—

galeam induitur, he puts on a helmet; Aen. 2, 392.

inûtile ferrum cingitur, he girds on the useless sword; Aen. 2, 510.

500. The accusative is sometimes used in apposition with a clause: as, *admoneor ut aliquid etiam dē sepultūrā dīcendum exīstimem, rem nōn difficilem, I am reminded to consider that something must be said about burial also, — an easy matter; Tusc. 1, 102.*

Accusative of Exclamation

501. The accusative is used in *exclamations*. The construction originated in sentences in which the accusative was the object of an easily supplied verb:—

mē miserum! wretched man that I am! Fam. 14, 1, 1.

testīs ēgregiōs! fine witnesses! Cael. 63.

In early Latin the accusative is used with the interjections *ecce* and *em*, in later Latin sometimes with *ēn*. The combination of forms of *is* with *ecce* gives *eccum*, *eccōs*, etc.; and with *em*, *ellum*, etc.

The enclitic *-ne* sometimes gives to an exclamation an interrogative force: as, *hocine saeculum! O this generation! (can it possibly be?); Ter. Ad. 304.*

Accusative of Kindred Meaning

502. Many intransitive verbs may take a substantive in the accusative which has, or suggests, a meaning similar to that of the verb.

The substantive may be a noun derived from the same root as the verb, or one which has a similar meaning but no etymological connection; or it may be an adjective with which a noun of meaning similar to that of the verb is to be supplied:—

cūr nōn eōsdem cursūs cucurrērunt? why did they not run the same course? Agr. 2, 44.

ut vivās aetātem miser, that you may live your life in woe; Pl. Am. 1023.

magnum clāmat, he's making a great noise; Pl. Mil. 823.

acerba tuēns, looking savage; Aen. 9, 794.

503. Verbs denoting *taste* or *smell* take an Accusative of Kindred Meaning: —

herbam mella sapiunt, the honey tastes of grass; Plin. H. N. 11, 18.
pāstillōs Rūfillus olet, Rufillus smells of lozenges; Hor. S. 1, 2, 27.

504. Some intransitive verbs which rarely or never take a noun may take a neuter pronoun or adjective of quantity as an Accusative of Kindred Meaning; and some transitive verbs may take such an accusative in connection with the direct object: —

idem glōriārī, to make the same boast; Cat. M. 32.
multa alia peccāns, making many other mistakes; N. D. 1, 29.
pauca milītēs hortātus, having said a few words of encouragement to the soldiers; Sall. Jug. 49, 6.
eōs hoc moneō, I give them this advice; Cat. 2, 20.

505. The poets use this construction with great freedom, — sometimes even with passive verbs: —

vōx hominem sonat, the voice sounds human; Aen. 1, 328.
saltāret utī Cyclōpa, to dance the Cyclops dance; Hor. S. 1, 5, 63.
Bacchānālīa vivunt, they live a Bacchanalian life; Juv. 2, 3.
Satyrum movētur, he dances the Satyr dance; Hor. Epis. 2, 2, 125.

Two Accusatives

506. For the two accusatives with verbs meaning *make*, *choose*, *call*, etc., see **392**. Instead of the predicate noun a predicate adjective may be used: as, *longiōrem mēsem faciunt, they make the month longer; Verr. 2, 129.*

507. Many verbs meaning *inquire*, *demand*, *teach*, or *conceal* take two accusatives, — one of the *person*, the other of the *thing*: —

mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion; Q. Fr. 2, 1, 3.
Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre, Caesar kept demanding corn of the Haedui; B. G. 1, 16, 1.
quid tē litterās doceam? why should I teach you your letters? Pison. 73.
iter omnēs cēlat, he conceals his march from everyone; Nep. Eum. 8, 7.

508. Some of these verbs (e.g. *petō, poscō, postulō, quaerō*) sometimes take, instead of the accusative of the *person*, the ablative with *ab, dē, or ex*, and, instead of the accusative of the *thing*, the ablative with *dē*.

509. The accusative of the *thing* is used also with the passive: —

sententiam rogātus, *having been asked his opinion*; Sall. Cat. 50, 4.
posceris exta, *you are asked for the entrails*; Ov. F. 4, 670.

belli artēs ēdoctus, *trained in the arts of war*; Liv. 25, 40, 5.

nōsne hoc cēlātōs, *to think that we have been kept in the dark about this*; Ter. Hec. 645. (But *quōr haec cēlāta mē sunt?* *why was this hidden from me?* Pl. Ps. 490.)

510. Certain other verbs (e.g. *volō, cōgō, accūsō*) sometimes take two accusatives, but the thing is usually a neuter pronoun or adjective of quantity and the construction is probably not to be distinguished from that of **504**: —

sī quid ille sē velit, *if he wanted anything of him*; B. G. 1, 34, 2.

id cōgit omnis, *he forces everybody to this*; Rep. 1, 3.

sī id nōn mē accūsās, *if you do not accuse me of that*; Pl. Trin. 96.

With these verbs also the accusative of the thing may be used with the passive: as, *ego hoc cōgor*, *I am forced to this*; Rab. Post. 17.

511. Two accusatives are often used with verbs compounded with *circum* or *trāns*, one being the object of the verb, the other of the preposition: —

quōs sua praesidia circumdūxit, *he led them around his fortifications*;
 B. C. 3, 61, 1.

flūmen exercitum trādūcere mātūrāvit, *he hastened to lead the army across the river*; B. G. 2, 5, 4.

The accusative connected with the preposition may be used also with the passive: as, *trāductō exercitū flūmen*, *the army having been taken across the river*; B. C. 3, 76, 1. So also with *praetervehor*: as, *Dyrrachium praetervehuntur*, *they sail past Dyrrachium*; B. C. 3, 26, 1.

512. The verb *trāciō* means also *pierce* or *cross*, and in these senses takes only the accusative which is connected with the preposition: as, *cum ratibus Trebiam trācerent*, *when they crossed the Trebia on rafts*; Liv. 21, 56, 8.

Accusative of Limit of Motion

513. The *limit of motion* is regularly expressed by the accusative with a preposition: —

lĕgātōs ad Caesarem mittunt, *they send envoys to Caesar*; B. G. 1, 11, 2.

in Ītāliam contendit, *he hastens into Italy*; B. G. 1, 10, 3.

sub populī Rōmānī imperium cecidērunt, *they fell under the power of the Roman people*; Font. 12.

514. With names of towns and small islands and with *domum*, *home* (also the plural *domōs*), and *rūs*, *country*, the preposition is regularly omitted. But with names of towns and small islands, if the meaning is not *to* but *to the neighborhood of*, a preposition is used: —

Catilinam Massiliam ire dictitant, *they say that Catiline is going to Marseilles*; Cat. 2, 16.

Lātōnam cōnfūgissee Dēlum, *that Latona fled to Delos*; Verr. 1, 48.

domum rediērunt, *they returned home*; B. G. 1, 29, 3.

domum reditiōnis spē sublātā, *the hope of a return home being gone*;

B. G. 1, 5, 3.

ut domōs suās discēderent, *that they scatter to their homes*; Nep. Them. 4, 2.

rūs ibō, *I shall go to the country*; Ter. Eun. 216.

ut ventum ad Cannās est, *when they had come near Cannae*; Liv. 22, 44, 1.

Poets and later prose writers often omit the preposition with names of countries and common nouns of place.

515. If *domus* means a *building*, it regularly has the preposition: as, *dicō tē vēnisse in M. Laecae domum*, *I say that you came to the house of Marcus Laeca*; Cat. 1, 8. When accompanied by an attribute, especially any adjective but a possessive, it often has the preposition.

516. The preposition is regularly used with **urbem** and **oppidum**, even when the name of the town is given: as, **ad urbem Fidēnās tendunt**, *they hasten to the city of Fidenae*; Liv. 4, 33, 10.

517. The preposition is not used with the supine in **-um**, which is an accusative case expressing limit of motion; or in the following phrases:—

exsequiās ire, *to go to the funeral.*

infitiās ire, *to deny.*

vēnum dare, *to sell.*

vēnum ire, *to be sold.*

suppetiās ire, *to go to one's assistance.*

It is sometimes omitted in the phrases **malam crucem ire** and **malam rem ire**, *to go to the torture* (colloquially, *to the deuce*).

Accusative of Extent

518. The accusative is used with verbs or adjectives (especially **lātus**, **longus**, and **altus**) to denote *extent of space or time*: —

multa milia passuum prōsecūtī, *having followed for many miles*;

B. G. 2, 11, 4.

fossās quīndecim pedēs lātās, *trenches fifteen feet wide*; B. G. 7, 72, 3.

cum diēs et noctēs nōs fāta circumstent, *since the fates stand about us day and night*; Phil. 10, 20.

ūndēvigintī annōs nātus erat, *he was nineteen years old*; Brut. 229.

519. Either the Accusative of Extent or the Ablative of Measure of Difference is used with the verbs **absum** and **distō**.

520. If the place from which the distance is measured is not given, the ablative with **ā** or **ab** is sometimes used: as, **positīs castrīs ā milibus passuum quīndecim**, *having encamped fifteen miles away*; B. G. 6, 7, 3.

521. In expressions of time, instead of a cardinal numeral with a plural noun, an ordinal with a singular noun is sometimes used with **iam**, to emphasize the fact that the statement contained in the verb is still true: as, **annum iam tertium et vicēsimum rēgnat**, *he is now ruling his twenty-third year*; Manil. 7.

Extent of time is often expressed by **per** with the accusative: as, **lūdi per decem diēs facti sunt**, *games were carried on for ten days*; Cat. 3, 20.

For the Ablative of Extent of Time see 495.

522. A neuter pronoun or adjective of quantity is used with many verbs as an Accusative of Extent, to denote *degree*. The most common are **aliquid**, **aliquantum**, **quicquam**, **multum**, **plūs**, **plūrimum**, **tantum**, **quantum**, and **nihil**: —

multum sunt in venātiōnibus, *they are much occupied in hunting*;

B. G. 4, 1, 8.

sī mē amās tantum quantum profectō amās, *if you love me as much as you really do*; Att. 2, 20, 5.

Accusative of Specification

523. The accusative is sometimes used to denote the thing *in respect to which* a statement is made.

With a few exceptions the construction is confined to nouns denoting the mind or a part of the body and to neuter plural adjectives such as **alia**, **cētera**, **omnia**, etc. The former use is rather common in poetry beginning with the Augustan period and is found occasionally in prose beginning with Sallust; the latter (except **cētera**) is very rare in both prose and poetry: —

percussa mentem, *stricken in mind*; Georg. 4, 357.

caput nectentur, *their heads shall be bound*; Aen. 5, 309.

virum cētera ēgregium, *a man excellent in other respects*; Liv. 1, 35, 6.

clārī genus, *of illustrious birth*; Tac. Ann. 6, 9.

524. The Accusative of Specification appears also in the following phrases which are used as adjectives or adverbs: —

partem (with a qualifying word), *in part*.

vicem (with a qualifying word), *on account of*, etc.

secus (with **virile** or **muliebre**), *in sex*.

id genus, *of that sort*.

id aetātis, *of that age*.

id temporis, *at that time*.

hōc noctis, *at this time of night*.

525. The use of the adverbial **quid**, *why*, originated in this construction, and also that of **quod** in such phrases as **quid est quod**, *why is it that*, and **nihil est quod**, *there is no reason why*.

Subject of Infinitive

526. The accusative is used as the subject of any infinitive except a historical infinitive: —

dicit montem ab hostibus tenēri, he says that the mountain is held by the enemy; B. G. I, 22, 2.

Divitiacum ad sē vocārī iubet, he orders Divitiacus to be called to him; B. G. I, 19, 3.

at tē Rōmae nōn fore, but to think that you won't be in Rome; Att. 5, 20, 7.

ABLATIVE CASE

527. The Ablative combines in itself the functions of three original cases, — the true Ablative, which denoted *separation* or *departure*, the Instrumental, which denoted originally *association*, and the Locative, which denoted the *place where*. The uses of the Ablative are therefore grouped under three heads, — Separative, Instrumental, and Locative.

Separative Uses

Ablative of Separation with Verbs

528. Verbs denoting *separation* take the ablative.

In this class are included not only verbs denoting actual separation but also those which denote *absence*, *aversion*, *cessation*, *difference*, *freedom*, *deprivation*, and *want*. The ablative is often accompanied by a preposition, but no general rule for its use can be given. It is regularly used when the noun denotes a person; also with verbs denoting *difference* or *aversion*; and with verbs denoting literal separation, unless the verb itself contains a separative preposition. It is regularly omitted with verbs denoting only figurative separation. Poets, and prose-writers beginning with Livy, omit the preposition more freely: —

tē tuō locō dēmovēre potuērunt, *they might have removed you from your place*; Planc. 53.

utī ex Galliae finibus pellerentur, *that they would be driven out of Gallic territory*; B. G. 1, 31, 11.

tē ab eō liberō, *I free you from him*; Q. Fr. 3, 1, 9.

civitātem dominātū rēgiō liberāvit, *he freed the state from a king's rule*; Planc. 60.

oppugnātiōne dēsistunt, *they abandon the siege*; B. G. 6, 39, 4.

quod abhorret ā meis mōribus, *which is inconsistent with my habits*; Cat. 1, 20.

omnibus egēre rēbus, *to be in want of everything*; B. C. 3, 32, 4.

For the genitive with these verbs see 436, 437; for the dative see 463, 477.

Ablative of Separation with Adjectives

529. The Ablative with or without a preposition is used with *aliēnus* and with adjectives denoting *freedom* or *want*: —

aliēnum māiestāte deōrum, *inconsistent with the dignity of the gods*; Div. 2, 105.

aliēnus ā litterīs, *a stranger to literature*; Verr. 2, 64.

liber cūrā, *free from care*; Fin. 1, 49.

inopēs ab amicis sunt, *they are destitute of friends*; Att. 1, 1, 2.

For the genitive with *aliēnus* see 410; for the dative see 487. For the genitive with adjectives meaning *want* see 429.

Ablative of Place Whence

530. Place Whence is regularly expressed by the ablative with a preposition; but the preposition is omitted with names of towns and small islands (unless the meaning is *from the neighborhood of*), with *domō*, *from home*, *rūre*, *from the country*, and, in poetry, *humō*, *from the ground*: —

dēcēdit ex Galliā, *he withdrew from Gaul*; Quinct. 16.

Rōmā accēperam litterās, *I had received a letter from Rome*; Att. 5, 8, 2.

Dēlō proficiscitur, *he sets out from Delos*; Verr. 1, 46.

dē illius Alexandrēā discessū, about his departure from Alexandria;
Att. 11, 18, 1.

ut ā Mutinā discēderet, that he should retire from the neighborhood of Modena; Phil. 14, 4.

cum rūre redierit, when he returns from the country; Fam. 5, 20, 9.

domō excesserant, they had gone away from home; B. G. 4, 14, 5.

vix oculōs attollit humō, she scarcely lifts her eyes from the ground;
Ov. Met. 2, 448.

531. Poets and later prose-writers sometimes omit the preposition where it would be used in classical prose; e.g. *rediēns Illyricō, returning from Illyria;* Tac. Ann. 3, 11. On the other hand the preposition is sometimes used (especially by Livy) with names of towns and with *domō* and *rūre*. The preposition is regularly used with names of towns if accompanied by *urbe* or *oppidō*; also with *domō* when it means a *building* and, sometimes, if it is accompanied by a qualifying word.

Ablative of Source

532. The ablative, either with or without a preposition, is used to denote *source*.

This construction is found chiefly with *nāscor*, *be born*, and the participles of other verbs denoting *parentage* or *descent*:—

ex mē nātus es, you are my son; Ter. Heaut. 1030.

sate sanguine divom, sprung from the blood of the gods; Aen. 6, 125.

ēdite rēgibus, descendant of kings; Hor. C. 1, 1, 1.

Belgās esse ortōs ā Germānis, that the Belgians were descended from the Germans; B. G. 2, 4, 1.

533. The idea of *source* is sometimes emphasized when the English would indicate the *place where*:—

Rhēnus oritur ex Lēpontīis, the Rhine rises in the country of the Lepontii; B. G. 4, 10, 3.

ex vinculis causam dicere, to plead his cause in chains; B. G. 1, 4, 1.

Especially in the common phrases:—

ā fronte, in front

ā latere, on the side

ā tergō, in the rear

ex hāc parte, on this side

ā dextrā, on the right

ā sinistrā, on the left

534. One form of the Ablative of Source is what is sometimes called the Ablative of Accordance. This denotes the source of an *act*, a *condition*, or a *statement*. Certain words are often used in this construction, — e.g. *cāsū*, *cōnsiliō*, *cōnsuētūdine*, *iūdictiō*, *sententiā*, *sponte*, and *voluntāte*: —

virtutem ex cōnsuētūdine vitæ interpretemur, *let us interpret virtue according to the standard of life*; Lael. 21.

nihil nisi commūnī cōnsiliō actūrōs, *that they would do nothing that was not in accord with a common purpose*; B. G. 3, 8, 3.

dē cōnsiliī sententiā, *according to the vote of the council*; Verr. 5, 53.

quam (glōriam) nēmō meō quidem iūdictiō est postea cōsecūtus, *which no one in my judgment at least afterward attained*; Brut. 32.

The common phrase *ex senātūs cōsultō* is of this nature.

Ablative of Agent

535. The ablative with *ā* or *ab* is used with a passive verb to denote the person who does the act: —

ab senātū amicus appellātus erat, *he had been called a friend by the senate*; B. G. 1, 3, 4.

ā patre eram dēductus, *I had been led by my father*; Lael. 1.

536. A *thing* more or less definitely personified may be treated as an Ablative of Agent: —

portus ab Eurōō flūctū curvātus, *the harbor curved by the southeast waves*; Aen. 3, 533.

animus bene infōrmātus ā nātūrā, *a soul well formed by nature*; Off. 1, 13.

537. On the other hand a *person* is sometimes regarded as a *means*, and the preposition is not used, — but very rarely with a passive verb: as, *haec (castella) excubitōribus tenēbantur*, *these redoubts were held by sentinels*; B. G. 7, 69, 7. Usually, if the person is regarded as a *means*, the accusative is used with *per*: as, *per explōrātōrēs certior factus est*, *he was informed through scouts*; B. G. 1, 12, 2.

538. The agent construction is sometimes used with an intransitive verb which suggests the meaning of a passive: as, *nē vir ab hoste cadat*, *lest the man should fall at the hands of (be slain by) an enemy*; Ov. H. 9, 36.

For the Dative of Agent see 480.

Ablative of Material

539. The *material* out of which a thing is made is expressed by the ablative with *ex* or *dē* (often omitted in poetry). —

scūtis ex cortice factis, *shields made of bark*; B. G. 2, 33, 2.

ex orātōre arātor factus sit, *from a pleader he has become a plowman*; Phil. 3, 22.

templum dē marmore, *a temple of marble*; Georg. 3, 13.

aere cavō clipeum, *a shield of hollow bronze*; Aen. 3, 286.

540. The preposition is usually omitted in such colloquial phrases as the following:—

quid Tulliolā meā fiet? *what will become of my dear Tullia?* Fam.

14, 4, 3.

quid tē futūrum est? *what will become of you?* Verr. 2, 155.

dē frātre quid fiet? *what will become of my brother?* Ter. Ad. 996.

For the Genitive of Material see 420.

Ablative of Comparison

541. An adjective in the comparative is regularly followed by *quam* with a substantive in the same case as that of the first thing compared. But if that is in the nominative or accusative, the adjective may be followed by the ablative without *quam*.

In Cicero the ablative construction is, with a few exceptions, restricted to negative sentences and interrogative sentences implying a negative. Relative pronouns are, however, regularly in the ablative without *quam*, and in poetry this construc-

tion is sometimes used even when the first noun is not in the nominative or accusative:—

nōn cāllidior es quam hic, you are not more shrewd than he; Rosc. Am. 49.

nihil est virtūte amābilius, nothing is more attractive than virtue; Lael. 28.

Hērodotum cūr vēraciōrem dūcam Enniō? why should I consider Herodotus more truthful than Ennius? Div. 2, 116.

Polybium sequāmur quō nēmō fuit diligentior, let us follow Polybius than whom no one was more careful; Rep. 2, 27.

Lūcili ritū, nostrum meliōris utrōque, in the manner of Lucilius, a better man than either one of us; Hor. S. 2, 1, 29.

542. The comparatives **plūs, minus, amplius, and longius** may take the ablative, but are regularly inserted without effect upon the case:—

tēcum plūs annum vixit, he lived with you more than a year; Quinct. 41.

reliquum spatium est nōn amplius pedum sexcentōrum, the remaining distance is not more than six hundred feet; B. G. 1, 38, 5.

543. In negative sentences **alter** and **alius** sometimes take the ablative: as, *nec quicquam aliud libertāte, nothing else than freedom; Fam. 11, 2, 2.*

544. Certain ablatives are used for the sake of brevity, instead of clauses. The most common are **aequō, crēdibilī, dictō, expectātiōne, iūstō, necessariō, opiniōne, solitō, and spē**:—

opiniōne celerius, faster than one would think; Fam. 14, 23.

plūs solitō, more than usual; Liv. 24, 9, 7.

sērius spē omnium Rōmam vēnit, he came to Rome later than every one expected; Liv. 26, 26, 4.

545. The comparative of an *adverb* usually takes **quam**; rarely the ablative, except in negative sentences and in poetry:—

tempus tē citius quam ōrātiō dēficeret, time would fail you sooner than words; Rosc. Am. 89.

lacrīmā nihil citius arēscit, nothing dries more quickly than a tear; Inv. 1, 109.

sī blandius Orpheō moderēre fidem, if you should play the harp more persuasively than Orpheus; Hor. C. 24, 13.

Ablative of Cause

546. The Ablative is used to denote Cause.

This construction probably originated in the Ablative of Source. Its development was largely due, however, to the influence of the Ablative of Means, which it often closely resembles. The construction is, therefore, partly Separative and partly Instrumental. The Ablative of Cause is sometimes accompanied by a preposition, — **ab**, **dē**, or **ex**, rarely **in**: —

ille timōre, ego risū corruī, he collapsed from fear, I from laughter;

Q. Fr. 2, 8, 2.

Veneris praesidiō ferōx, made bold by the protection of Venus; Hor.

C. 1, 15, 13.

ab irā, on account of anger; Liv. 26, 1, 4.

quā dē causā, for this reason; B. G. 1, 1, 4.

ex vulnere aeger, disabled by a wound; Rep. 2, 38.

in hāc laude dēlector, I take pleasure in this praise; Fam. 6, 4, 4.

(So also *gaudeō, laetor, glōrior*, etc., either with or without the preposition.)

547. The Ablatives of Cause, **causā** and **grātiā**, *for the sake of, on account of*, are used with a preceding genitive or with a possessive adjective in agreement: —

rēscripsit sē corōnam habuisse honōris Caesaris causā, posuisse

lūctūs grātiā, he replied that he had taken the crown to do honor to Caesar, that he had put it aside on account of grief; Att. 14,

19, 3.

vestrā reīque pūblīcae causā, for your sake and that of the state;

Verr. 5, 173.

Nōmine is often used in the same way, either with a genitive or a possessive adjective.

548. Cause is expressed also by the accusative with **ob**, **per**, **propter**, and; sometimes, **ad**.

549. A *preventive* cause is often expressed by the ablative with **prae**: *as, neque dēcrētum exaudīrī cōsulīs prae strepitū et clamōre poterat, the consul's decree could not be heard because of the tumult and shouts; Liv. 2, 27, 8.*

Instrumental Uses

Ablative of Accompaniment

550. Accompaniment is denoted by the ablative, regularly with the preposition **cum**.

The term *accompaniment* is to be understood in a wide sense, including not only *union* and *companionship*, but also connection of all kinds, — *comparison*, *contention*, etc.:—

cum Pānsā vixi, *I have lived with Pansa*; Att. 14, 20, 4.

cum Caesare ēgit, *he pleaded with Caesar*; B. G. 1, 13, 3.

nec haec solitūdō **cum** illā comparanda est, *this solitude is not to be compared with that*; Off. 3, 2.

nōbiscum hostēs contendērunt, *the enemy fought with us*; B. G. 5, 17, 5.

551. In certain military phrases **cum** is often omitted, but never if the ablative is unqualified or is qualified by a numeral:—

omnibus cōpiis ad Ilerdam proficiscitur, *with all his troops he starts for Ilerda*; B. C. 1, 41, 2.

uterque **cum** equitātū veniret, *that each should come with cavalry*; B. G. 1, 42, 4.

cum his quīque legiōnibus, *with these five legions*; B. G. 1, 10, 3.

552. The verbs **misceō**, **commisceō**, and **cōfundō**, *mix*, and the participles **iūctus** and **coniūctus**, *joined*, take the ablative with or without **cum**. The verbs **assuēfaciō** and **assuēscō**, *make familiar* (**assuēscō** also *be accustomed*), take the ablative without **cum**. These verbs sometimes take the dative (see 463), — **misceō** and **commisceō** only in poetry.

553. In poetry and late prose **simul** is sometimes used instead of **cum**: as, **simul** **nōbīs** habitat barbarus, *the barbarian lives with us*; Ov. Trist. 5, 10, 29.

For the dative with words meaning *contention*, see 463.

Ablative of Manner

554. The ablative, either with or without **cum**, is used to denote the *manner* in which an act is performed.

The preposition is *not* used with **modō**, **mōre**, **pactō**, **ratione**, **rītū**, and **viā**, or with certain common words which had come

to be used as adverbs, — e.g. **dolō**, **fraude**, **fūrtō**, **iūre**, **iniūriā**, **ordine**, **silentiō**; or with **arte**, **certāmine**, **ope**, and **vitiō**. The preposition is sometimes omitted with other nouns, and usually omitted if they are qualified by an adjective: —

fieri nullō pactō potest, *it can't be done in any way*; Fin. 1, 27.

iūre an iniūriā, *rightly or wrongly*; Verr. 2, 150.

cēnsōrēs vitiō creati, *censors irregularly appointed*; Liv. 6, 27, 5.

ut eōs purā mente venerēmur, *provided we worship them with a clean mind*; N. D. 2, 71.

reliquiās cum cūrā exsecutus est, *he followed up the remnants diligently*; Liv. 39, 41, 6.

555. Manner may be expressed also by the accusative with **per**: as, **per vim**, *with violence*; **per litterās**, *by letter*.

Ablative of Attendant Circumstance

556. The ablative is used to denote a circumstance connected with the action of the verb.

The preposition **cum** is sometimes used, but with common words and phrases it is regularly omitted: —

quantō id cum periculō fecerit, *at what risk he did this*; B. G. 1, 17, 6.

cum tuā peste ac perniciē proficiscere ad bellum, *to your own ruin and destruction set out for war*; Cat. 1, 33.

exercitum duārum cohortium damnō reducit, *he leads back his army with the loss of two cohorts*; B. G. 6, 44, 1.

exiērunt malis ominibus, *they went out with bad omens*; Sest. 71.

meritō tuō feci, *I have done as you deserve*; Att. 5, 11, 6.

Ablative of Quality

557. The ablative is used to denote a *quality*, but only if the noun is accompanied by a qualifying word.

This construction may be used either attributively or in the predicate. As distinct from the Genitive of Quality (see 421), the ablative usually (but by no means always) denotes a *transitory* or *external* quality: —

spē sum maximā, I am in very great hope; Q. Fr. 1, 2, 16.

statūrā fuit humilī, he was of low stature; Nep. Ages. 8, 1.

cōfixa clāvis digiti pollicis crassitudine, held by spikes of the thickness of one's thumb; B. G. 3, 13, 3.

singulārī fuit industriā, he was a man of unparalleled industry; Nep. Cato, 3, 1.

In later Latin the Ablative of Quality often qualifies a proper name; rarely in Ciceronian Latin.

Ablative Absolute

558. A substantive and a participle in the ablative are often used in loose connection with a sentence, to express any one of a variety of ideas.

This construction probably originated in the *sociative* use of the Instrumental (see 527), but many examples show that its development was due partly to the influence of the true Ablative and the Locative.

[The perfect participle is most commonly used in this construction, the present sometimes, and the future from Livy on. Instead of a participle, the second member of the phrase may be a substantive or an adjective used predicatively.

The Ablative Absolute is used to express the following ideas:—

559. (1) Time:

hōc respōsō datō discessit, when this answer had been given, he went away; B. G. 1, 14, 7.

Lepidō et Tullō cōsulibus, in the consulship of Lepidus and Tullus (Lepidus and Tullus being consuls); Cat. 1, 15.

560. (2) Cause:

rēgnārī volēbant libertātis dulcēdine nōndum expertā, they were willing to be ruled by a king because they had not yet experienced the sweetness of freedom; Liv. 1, 17, 3.

561. (3) Manner:

incitātō equō sē hostibus obtulit, with his horse at full speed he rushed upon the enemy; B. G. 4, 12, 6.

562. (4) *Condition*, sometimes with **velut**, **quasi**, **tamquam**, or **nisi**:

semper existimābitis vivō P. Clōdiō nihil eōrum vōs visūrōs fuisse, *you will always think that if Publius Clodius had been alive you would not have seen any of these things*; Mil. 78.

omnēs, velut dis auctōribus quisque acceptis, proelium poscunt, *all demand battle, each as if he had taken the gods as his supporters*; Liv. 21, 45, 9.

563. (5) *Opposition*, sometimes with **etsi** or **quamquam**:

id (oppidum) paucis defendentibus expugnare non potuit, *though few defended the town, he could not take it*; B. G. 2, 12, 2.

etsi invitō mē tamen mē auctōre profectus est, *though against my wish, still at my instigation, he started*; Att. 13, 28, 3.

564. (6) *Any attendant circumstance*:

brevitatem secutus sum tē magistrō, *I have aimed at brevity under your instruction*; Fam. 11, 25, 1.

565. The ideas of *time* and *cause* are often combined:

quibus rebus cognitis Caesar apud milites cōtīnātur, *when (and because) he had learned this, Caesar made a speech to the soldiers*; B. C. 1, 7, 1.

566. The subject of the ablative absolute phrase is sometimes omitted, particularly if it is the antecedent of a relative pronoun: —

quserentibus quid rei esset, *when they asked what the matter was*; Liv. 3, 50, 4.

digredientibus quī spem omnem secum ferēbant, *when those departed who carried all hope with them*; Liv. 5, 40, 2.

567. A clause sometimes takes the place of the noun in this construction: —

cognitō vivere Ptolemseum, *when it was learned that Ptolemy was alive*; Liv. 33, 41, 5.

incertō quid peterent, *it being uncertain what they should seek*; Liv. 28, 36, 12.

568. Sometimes a participle is used alone in an impersonal sense: —

cōsultō, *after deliberation*; Off. 1, 27.

nec auspicatō nec litatō, *without auspices or favorable sacrifice*; Liv. 5, 38, 1.

569. A noun or pronoun is rarely used in the ablative absolute construction if it denotes a person or thing mentioned elsewhere in the sentence. There are occasional exceptions: —

vōsne ego patiar cum mendicīs nūptās mē vivō viris? shall I let you be married to beggars while I am alive? Pl. Stich. 132.

nēmō erit quī crēdat tē invitō prōvinciam tibi esse dēcrētam, there will be no one to believe that the province was assigned to you against your will; Phil. 11, 23.

Ablative of Means

570. The ablative is used to denote the *means* by which an act is accomplished: —

gladiis pugnātum est, the battle was fought with swords; B. G. 1, 52, 4.

lacte et carne vivunt, they live on milk and meat; B. G. 5, 14, 2.

Aeacidae tēlō iacet Hector, Hector lies (slain) by Achilles' spear;

Aen. 1, 99.

exercitūs interitus ferrō, the destruction of the army by the sword;

Pison. 40.

For the Ablative of Means of a noun denoting a *person* see **537**.

571. This construction is used with verbs meaning to *fill* and adjectives meaning *full*: —

fossam aggere explent, they fill the trench with earth; B. G. 7, 79, 4.

ornāmentis plēnam domum, a house full of ornaments; Verr. 4, 126.

opimum praedā, rich in plunder; Verr. 1, 132.

For the genitive with these words see **429, 436**.

The Ablative of Means is used also with the following words and phrases: —

572. (a) With the deponents *ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor*, and some of their compounds: —

commoda quibus ūtimur lūcemque quā fruimur, the blessings which we use and the light of day which we enjoy; Rosc. Am. 131.

quousque abūtēre patientiā nostrā? how long will you abuse our patience? Cat. 1, 1.

lacte et carne vescēbantur, they lived on milk and meat; Sall. Jug. 89, 7.

These verbs sometimes take the accusative in early and late Latin. For the genitive with *potior* see **446**. The verb *epulor, feast*, like *vescor*, sometimes takes the ablative.

573. (b) Sometimes with **opus est** and **usus est**, *there is need* (**opus** and **usus** being used as the subject of **est**):—

virō opus est, *there is need of a man*; Liv. 24, 8, 12.

usus est tuā mihi operā, *I need your help*; Pl. Pers. 328.

The ablative with **usus est** is common only in early Latin.

574. The ablative with **opus est** and **usus est** is sometimes qualified by a participle which contains the important idea of the phrase:—

nē existumārent sibi perditā rē publicā opus esse, *let them not think that he needed to ruin the state*; Sall. Cat. 31, 7.

quam subitō argentō mī usus inventō siet, *how quickly I must find money*; Pl. Ps. 50.

Sometimes a participle is used alone in the ablative in an impersonal sense:—

mātūrātō opus est, *there is need of haste*; Liv. 8, 13, 17.

tacitō usus est, *there is need of silence*; Pl. Cist. 124.

575. **Opus** is used also as a predicate noun: as, **quaecumque opus sunt**, *whatever things are needed*; B. G. 5, 40, 6.

576. (c) With the verb **contineor**, *consist of*, the participle **contentus**, *satisfied*, and the adjective **frētus**, *relying on*:—

quae quattuor hīs virtūtibus continētur, *which consists of these four virtues*; Fin. 2, 48.

contentum suis rēbus esse, *to be content with one's own lot*; Par. 6, 51.

superiōribus victōriis frēti, *relying on their former victories*; B. G. 3, 21, 1.

Ablative of Price

577. The ablative is used to denote *definite price* or *value*; and, with a few exceptions, *indefinite price* or *value*, if indicated by a noun:—

dēnāriis tribus aestimāvit, *he valued it at three denarii*; Verr. 3, 215.

vīlest viginti minīs, *it is cheap at twenty minae*; Pl. Most. 297.

Eriphyla aurō viri vītam vēdidit, *Eriphyla sold her husband's life for gold*; Inv. 1, 94.

578. Either the genitive or ablative of certain adjectives is used to express *indefinite price*; thus, **magnī** or **magnō**, **parvī** or **parvō**, **minimī** or **minimō**, **quantī** or **quantō**. So, the genitive or ablative of certain substantives: as, **nihilī** or **nihilō**.

For the Genitive of Price see **424**.

579. Verbs meaning *to exchange* (**mūtō**, **commūtō**, **permūtō**, and, rarely, **vertō**) take the ablative of the thing given or the thing taken in exchange:—

Lucretilem mūtāt Lycaeō Faunus, *Faunus exchanges Lycaeus for Lucretilis*; Hor. C. 1, 17, 1.

mītibus mūtāre tristia, *to substitute kind feelings for bitter*; Hor. C. 1, 16, 25.

vertere fūneribus triumphōs, *to turn triumphs into funerals*; Hor. C. 1, 35, 4.

Mūtō and its compounds sometimes take the ablative with **cum** or **prō**.

580. The Ablative of Price is used with verbs meaning *to punish*, to denote the *penalty*: as, **Frusinātēs tertiā parte agrī damnātī**, *the people of Frusino were fined a third of their territory*; Liv. 10, 1, 3.

For the Genitive of the Penalty see **431-433**.

Ablative of the Road

581. The ablative is used of the *road* which serves as the *means* of a journey:—

Aurēliā viā profectus est, *he set out by the Aurelian road*; Cat. 2, 6.

portā Collinā intrāvere, *they entered by the Colline gate*; Liv. 3, 51, 10.

secundō flūmine iter facere coepit, *he began to march down the river*;

B. G. 7, 58, 5.

Ablative of Measure of Difference

582. With adjectives and adverbs in the comparative, sometimes with adjectives and adverbs in the superlative, and with other words which imply comparison the ablative is used to denote the *measure of difference*:—

ūnō diē longiōrem mēsem faciunt, they make the month longer by one day; Verr. 2, 129.

quantō erat gravior oppugnātiō, tantō crēbriōrēs litterae mittēbantur, the more burdensome the siege, the more often were letters sent; B. G. 5, 45, 1. (So, also, the correlatives quō . . . eō.)

fuit pūniendum nihilō minus, punishment had to be inflicted none the less; Mil. 19.

multō mē vigilāre ācrius, that I watch much more sharply; Cat. 1, 8. multō maxima pars, much the greatest part; Cat. 4, 17.

hic locus aequō ferē spatiō ā castris utriusque aberat, this place was almost equally distant from the camp of each; B. G. 1, 43, 1.

583. The Ablative of Measure of Difference is used with the adverbs **ante**, **abhinc**, and **post**, to denote *time before* or *after*: as, **tribus ante (abhinc, post) annīs**, *three years before (or after)*. There is often a following clause introduced by **quam**, or, by combination with the adverbs, it is introduced by **antequam** or **postquam**. An ordinal with an ablative denoting *time when* is sometimes used when followed by **quam** with a clause: as, **tertiō annō antequam** or **postquam**. **Quam** may stand for **postquam**: as, **octāvō mēse quam coeptum oppugnārī**, *eight months after the siege began; Liv. 21, 15, 3.*

584. The accusative is sometimes used with the prepositions **ante** and **post**: as, **ante (or post) trēs annōs**, *three years before (or after)*. In late Latin, rarely in classical Latin, this construction is sometimes followed by **quam** and a clause. The ordinal is sometimes used in this construction when followed by a clause: as, **ante (or post) tertium annum quam**.

The Accusative of Extent is sometimes used with **abhinc**: as, **abhinc trēs annōs**, *three years ago*.

585. Instead of the ablative the Accusative of Extent is sometimes used with verbs meaning *to surpass*, rarely with comparatives: —

numerō aliquantum praestābant, in numbers they were somewhat superior;

Liv. 22, 18, 2.

fōrmam aliquantum augustiōrem, a figure somewhat more dignified; Liv. 1,

Ablative of Specification

586. The Ablative of Specification denotes that *in respect to which* a statement is made.

The preposition **in** is used sometimes with abstract nouns and regularly with pronouns, except relatives: —

hī omnēs linguā, institūtis, lēgibus inter sē differunt, these all differ from one another in language, customs, and laws; B. G. 1, 1, 2.

hominēs nōn rē sed nōmine, human beings not in fact but in name; Off. 1, 105.

similem in fraude et malitiā, similar in trickery and evil-doing; Rosc. Com. 20.

in eā superiōrēs, superior in this; Fin. 3, 5.

For the Supine in *-ū* as an Ablative of Specification see **1017**.

587. The Ablative of Specification is used with **dignus** and **indignus** and, by the poets and later prose-writers, with the verb **dignor**: —

amīcī dignī amīcitiā, friends worthy of friendship; Lael. 67.

omnī honōre indignissimum, quite unworthy of every honor; Vat. 39.

haud tālī mē dignor honōre, I do not deem myself worthy of such honor; Aen. 1, 335.

For the genitive with **dignus** and **indignus** see **425**.

Locative Uses

Ablative of Place Where

588. The *place where* a thing is or is done is usually expressed by the ablative with **in** (sometimes **sub**, rarely **super**): —

in citiōre Galliā, in nearer Gaul; B. G. 2, 1, 1.

in Venetis, among the Veneti; B. G. 3, 17, 1.

sub monte, at the foot of the mountain; B. G. 1, 48, 1.

fronde super viridi, on a couch of green leaves; Ecl. 1, 80.

589. This construction is used to express not only *place* in a literal sense but also various figurative ideas. Thus the prepo-

sition **in** may assume various meanings, — e.g. *in the case of, in view of, in spite of*: —

in tantis rei publicae periculis, *in so great dangers of the state*; Cat. 1, 4.
quantō hoc magis in fortissimīs civibus facere debēmus, *how much more ought we to do this in the case of our bravest citizens*; Mil. 92.
in tantā foeditate dēcrēti, *in view of the great cruelty of the decree*;
 Liv. 3, 47, 5.
nōscitābatur in tantā dēfōrmitate, *he was recognized in spite of great disfigurement*; Liv. 2, 23, 4.

590. Verbs denoting *motion* regularly take the accusative with a preposition, but verbs meaning *to place* regularly take the ablative with a preposition: —

Platō ratiōnem in capite posuit, *Plato has put reason in the head and has located anger in the heart*; Tusc. 1, 20.
pōne sub currū sōlis, *put me under the chariot of the sun*; Hor. C. 1, 22, 21.
ligna super focō repōnēs, *putting logs upon the hearth*; Hor. C. 1, 9, 5.

591. Also the following verbs denoting *motion* take the ablative: — **cōnsidō**, *sit down, settle*; **dēfigō**, *drive in, fasten*; **dēmergō**, *plunge* (also accusative); **imprimō**, *press upon* (also dative); **inclūdō**, *shut into* (also dative).

592. The ablative of names of towns and small islands, in the plural of all declensions and, in classical Latin, in the singular of the third declension, is used *without the preposition* to denote *place where*: — **Cūmis**, *at Cumae*; **Gabiīs**, *at Gabii*; **Calibus**, *at Cales*; **Carthāgine**, *at Carthage*; **Capreīs**, *at Capri*.

593. The ablative singular of town-names of the first and second declensions, with the preposition **in**, is sometimes used instead of the Locative, especially when there is assimilation with a preceding ablative: as, **in monte Albānō Lāviniōque**, *on the Alban mount and at Lavinium*; Liv. 5, 52, 8.

594. **Urbs, oppidum, mūnicipium**, etc., in apposition with a town-name usually take the preposition: as, **Albae in urbe opportūnā**, *at Alba, a convenient city*; Phil. 4, 6. Digitized by Microsoft®

595. General locality is sometimes denoted by the accusative with *ad*: *as, ad Tībur, in the neighborhood of Tibur*; Phil. 6, 10.

For the use of the Locative Case of town-names and other nouns see 606-614.

596. In designations of *place where*, the preposition is often omitted with certain common nouns, especially if they are accompanied by a qualifying word; e.g. *initiō, librō* and *librīs, locō, numerō, parte* and *partibus, principiō, regiōne, rūre*; also with any noun qualified by *cūctus, omnis, tōtus, ūniversus*, or *medius*. The preposition is regularly omitted with *dextrā, on the right; laevā, sinistrā, on the left*; also with *animō* (except in the phrase *in animō esse* or *habēre*) and *animīs, corpore, linguā, memoriā*, and the phrase *terrā marique*.

597. In poetry and later prose the preposition may be omitted with any noun: —

bellum geret Italiā, he will wage war in Italy; Aen. 1, 263.

thalamō, in your chamber; Hor. C. 1, 15, 16

598. The following verbs take the ablative of *place where*, with or without a preposition: — *acquiēscō, take pleasure in; nītor, rest, rely upon; stō, cōnstō, and cōnsistō, persist in*. *Innītor* takes the dative (see 464), or the ablative without a preposition. The participle *subnixus* takes the ablative without a preposition. *Fidō, cōnfidō, and diffidō* usually take the dative (see 466), sometimes the ablative without a preposition.

Ablative of Time

599. The time *when* or the period of time *within which* a thing is done is regularly expressed by the ablative, usually with a qualifying word: —

superiōre aestāte, in the previous summer; B. G. 5, 8, 3.

hieme, in the winter; B. G. 5, 1, 1.

adventū Caesaris, on Caesar's arrival; B. G. 5, 54, 2.

proximis comitiīs, at the last election; B. G. 7, 67, 7.

paucis diēbus opus efficitur, within a few days the work is finished;

■ B. G. 6, 9, 4.

tribus proximis annis, within the last three years; Sall. Jug. 11.

600. With words denoting a period of life or a term of office, and with words denoting a period of time, when preceded by a numeral adverb, the preposition **in** is regularly used, unless the noun is accompanied by a qualifying word:—

in adulēcentiā, *in youth*; Pl. Bac. 410.

extrēmā pueritiā, *at the end of boyhood*; Manil. 28.

in cōsulātū nostrō, *in my consulship*; Arch. 28.

ter **in** annō, *three times a year*; Rosc. Am. 132.

The preposition is sometimes used with other words, especially those denoting periods of time, even when not accompanied by a numeral adverb:—

in tāli tempore, *at such a time*; Liv. 22, 35, 7.

in diēbus proximis decem, *within the next ten days*; Sall. Jug. 28, 2.

in hōrā ducentōs versūs dictābat, *he dictated two hundred verses an hour*; Hor. S. 1, 4, 9.

601. The ablative of *time within which* when followed by a relative clause sometimes denotes time *after*: as, **diēbus decem quibus mātēria coepta erat comportārī**, *within ten days after the lumber began to be hauled*; B. G. 4, 18, 1.

602. Time *when* is sometimes expressed by the accusative with **ad** or **sub**, or the ablative with **cum**; time *within which* by the accusative with **intrā** or **per**:—

ad hōram dēstinātam, *at the appointed hour*; Tusc. 5, 63.

sub occāsum sōlis, *toward sunset*; B. G. 2, 11, 6.

cum primā lūce, *at daybreak*; Att. 4, 3, 4.

intrā annōs quattuordecim, *within fourteen years*; B. G. 1, 36, 7.

per eōs ipsōs diēs profectus, *setting out during those very days*; Liv. 31, 26, 1.

The Roman Calendar

603. The year is usually indicated by the names of the consuls in the ablative absolute construction, less often by reckoning from the traditional date of the founding of the city, 753 B.C.: as, **L. Domitiō Ap. Claudiō cōsulibus**, *in the consul-*

ship of Lucius Domitius and Appius Claudius (54 B.C.); B. G. 5, 1, 1; the same date might have been expressed as follows: — **annis post Rōmam conditam septingentis** or **annō septingentēsīmō post Rōmam conditam**.

604. Before 45 B.C. the months of March, May, July, and October had thirty-one days, February twenty-eight, the others twenty-nine. Beginning with 45 B.C. the number of days in the months was the same as now. The first day of the month is called **Kalendae**, the Calends, the fifth **Nōnae**, the Nones, the thirteenth **Īdūs**, the Ides; but in March, May, July, and October the Nones are the seventh, the Ides the fifteenth. The Calends, Nones, and Ides, when used as dates, are in the Ablative of Time. Other days are reckoned back from these. The day before is indicated by **prīdiē** with the accusative: as, **prīdiē Nōnās Iānuāriās** (abbreviated **prīd. Nōn. Iān.**), *the fourth of January*. Other days are indicated by **ante diem** with an ordinal, the whole phrase being treated as a preposition, with the accusative **Nōnās**, **Īdūs**, or **Kalendās**. Thus, **ante diem sextum Kalendās Aprīlis** (abbreviated **a. d. VI Kal. Apr.**) is the twenty-seventh of March, since in reckoning forward or back the Roman counted both the first and the last of the series. A date expressed in this way may be preceded by a preposition **ex**, *from*, or **ad** or **in**, *to*. Sometimes a shorter form is used: as, **quīntō diē ante Īdūs Octōbris** (abbreviated **V Īd. Oct.**), *the eleventh of October*.

The second day before the Nones, Ides, or Calends is, according to the Roman method of reckoning, the third.

Ablative of Extent of Time

- **605.** *Extent of time* is sometimes expressed by the ablative: —

tōtā nocte iērunt, *they went during the whole night*; B. G. 1, 26, 5.

quod quinque hōris proelium sustinuissent, *because they had kept up the fight for five hours*; B. C. 1, 47, 3.

For the Accusative of Extent of Time see **518**.

LOCATIVE CASE

606. The Locative Case denotes the *place where*.

Only the following nouns have a locative case:—

607. (a) Names of towns and small islands in the singular of the first and second declensions: as, **Rōmae**, *at Rome*; **Lanūvī**, *at Lanuvium*; **Melitae**, *at Malta*; **Cypri**, *at Cyprus*.

608. (b) A few town-names in the singular of the third declension: as, **Carthāginī**, *at Carthage*. But the *ablative* of third declension nouns is more commonly used to denote *place where*.

609. (c) Some common nouns of the first and second declensions; these are **domī** (rarely **domuī**), *at home*; **humī**, *on the ground*; **bellī** and **militiae**, *in war*; rarely **terrae**, *in the earth*. Also, of the third declension, **rūrī**, *in the country* (the *ablative* **rūre** is used in the same sense). For the locative **animī** see **430**.

610. (d) Very rarely, the name of a country or large island:—

Aegyptī, *in Egypt*; Val. 4, 1, 15.

Rōmae Numidiaequē, *at Rome and in Numidia*; Sall. Jug. 33, 4.

Crētae cōsidere, *to settle in Crete*; Aen. 3, 162.

Of all other words the *ablative* is used to denote *place where*.

611. In early Latin, instead of the locative of names of towns and islands, the *ablative* with **in** is often used.

612. When a locative is followed by an appositive, — **urbs**, **oppidum**, **insula**, etc., — the appositive is in the *ablative* with or without the preposition: as, **Albae**, **in urbe mūnitā**, *at Alba, a fortified town*; Phil. 4, 6; **Antiochiaē**, **celebrī quondam urbe**, *at Antioch, once a busy city*; Arch. 4. If the appositive precedes, the preposition is always used; under these circumstances the proper name is sometimes in the *ablative*: as, **in urbe Rōmā**, *in the city of Rome*; Liv. 39, 14, 7.

613. The locative **domī** may be accompanied by a possessive adjective or **aliēnus** in the genitive, or by a possessive genitive: as, **domī tuae**, *at your house*; **domī aliēnae**, *at another man's house*; **domī Caesaris**, *at Caesar's*

house. But when the noun is thus qualified, the ablative with *in* is sometimes used instead of the locative.

614. In the following words and phrases a locative is used to denote *time when*:— *diē* in such combinations as *diē septimī*, *on the seventh day*; *pridiē*, *the day before*; *postridiē*, *the day after*; *cōtīdiē*, *every day*; *herī*, *yesterday*; *lūcī*, *in the light*; *mānī* (later, *māne*), *in the morning*; *temperī* or *temporī*, *on time*; *vesperī*, *in the evening*.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES

CLASSIFICATION

615. Adjectives are classified according to their *nature* as follows:—

1. **Descriptive adjectives**, denoting *quality* or *quantity*: as, *bonus*, *good*; *multus*, *much*.

2. **Participial adjectives**: as, *patiēns*, *patient*; *rēctus*, *straight*.

3. **Pronominal adjectives**; these include (a) Demonstrative adjectives: as, *hic*, *this*; (b) Relative and Interrogative adjectives: as, *quālis*, *of what sort*, *uter*, *which* (of two); (c) Indefinite adjectives: as *aliquis*, *some*; (d) the Distributive adjectives, *quisque*, *each*, and *uterque*, *each* (of two); (e) the Intensive, *ipse*; (f) *alius*, *another*, and *alter*, *the other* (of two).

4. **Possessive adjectives**: as, *meus*, *my*; *cūius*, *whose*.

5. **Numeral adjectives**: as, *ūnus*, *one*.

Participial Adjectives

616. All participles agree with nouns in gender, number, and case, and are therefore to that extent adjectives. Only those which denote a permanent quality, however, are classed as adjectives. The present active and the perfect passive are often used in this way. The future active is so used in the Augustan poets and later prose-writers: as, *mānsūrus*, *permanent*; Cicero uses *futūrus* and *ventūrus*. The future passive is occasionally so used at all periods: as, *timendus*, *terrible*.

617. Participles used as adjectives are sometimes compared: —

sī quī adūstiōris colōris essent, if any were more sunburned; Liv. 27, 47, 2.
homo ēruditiſsimus, a very learned man; Verr. 4, 126.

Pronominal adjectives are treated under the head of Pronouns.

Possessive Adjectives

618. Possessive adjectives are ordinarily not used unless they are needed to make the meaning clear; they are used also to give emphasis or denote a contrast.

619. The reflexive possessive adjective of the third person, — *suus*, — in an independent clause regularly refers to the subject; sometimes to another word, when the context makes the meaning clear: —

Orgetorix ad iūdicium omnem suam familiam coēgit, Orgetorix gathered all his people at the trial; B. G. 1, 4, 2.

hunc suī civēs ē civitāte ēiēcērunt, his fellow-citizens drove him from the state; Sest. 142.

Rōmānis multitudō sua auxit animum, their own numbers increased the courage of the Romans; Liv. 21, 50, 4.

620. In dependent clauses *suus* usually refers to the subject of the main verb; sometimes to the subject of the clause in which it stands: —

Nāsidiſ eōs hortātur ut rūrsus cum Brūtī classe additīs suīs auxiliīs cōfligant, Nasidius urges them to fight again with the fleet of Brutus, adding his (Nasidius') troops as auxiliaries; B. C. 2, 3, 3.

Helvētīi persuādent Rauracīs utī oppidīs suīs exūstīs proficiscantur, the Helvetians persuade the Rauraci to burn their towns and set out; B. G. 1, 5, 4.

621. In indirect discourse *suus* refers sometimes to the subject of the infinitive, but usually to the subject of the verb which introduces the indirect discourse: —

quam praedicant frātis suī membra dissipāvisse, they say that she scattered her brother's limbs; Manil. 22.

omnēs finitimōs suae virtūti invidēre, (they said) that all their neighbors envied their courage; B. G. 2, 31, 4.

622. The lack of a non-reflexive possessive adjective of the third person is supplied by the genitive of the demonstrative pronouns.

For the use of the possessive adjective instead of an objective genitive see **427**. For the possessive adjective with *rēfert* and *interest* see **434**.

623. The genitive of a personal or reflexive pronoun is sometimes used for emphasis instead of a possessive adjective: as, *magnō suī cum periculō*, *with great danger to themselves*; B. G. 4, 28, 2.

The personal or reflexive pronoun is regularly used when the noun is accompanied by *omnium* or *utriusque*: —

ad omnium nostrum vitam pertinent, *they pertain to the life of all of us*; Cat. 1, 14.

domūs utriusque nostrum, *the houses belonging to each of us*; Q. Fr. 2, 4, 2.

For the Appositive Genitive with a possessive adjective see **403**

624. The rare possessive adjective *cūius*, *whose*, is found chiefly in the dramatists; it has either an interrogative or a relative force.

ATTRIBUTIVE AND PREDICATE ADJECTIVES

625. Adjectives may be classified also according to their *use*, as (a) *attributive*, (b) *predicate*.

626. An Attributive Adjective qualifies a noun directly: —

magnīs itineribus contendit, *he hastens by forced marches*; B. G. 1, 38, 7.

ēventūs variī sequēbantur, *various results followed*; B. G. 2, 22, 2.

pervēnerat ad loca nāta insidiīs, *he had come to places fitted by nature for an ambush*; Liv. 22, 4, 2.

627. A Predicate Adjective qualifies a noun through the medium of a verb, which serves as a means of connection between the noun and the adjective: —

fortūna caeca est, fortune is blind; Lael. 54.

idōneum locum arbitrātus, thinking the place suitable; B. G. 4, 23, 4.
cum militēs alacriōrēs effēcissent, when they had made the soldiers
more eager; B. G. 3, 24, 5.

tria praedia Capitōnī propria trāduntur, three farms are given to
Capito as his own; Rosc. Am. 21.

fuit doctus, he was a learned man; Brut. 94.

628. A special form of the Predicate Adjective is the Proleptic Adjective, which is used with verbs not ordinarily taking a predicate adjective, to denote the result of the action of the verb: —

sī parcent animae fāta superstīti, if the fates will spare my love and
let her live; Hor. C. 3, 9, 12.

scūta latentia condunt, they put their shields away in concealment;
Aen. 3, 237.

aliōs age rabiōs, drive others mad; Catull. 63, 93.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES

629. All adjectives (including participles) agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case: —

fortissimī sunt Belgae, the Belgians are the bravest; B. G. 1, 1, 3.

mulier litterīs Graecīs et Latinīs docta, a woman familiar with Greek
and Latin literature; Sall. Cat. 25, 2.

quālī pietāte existimātis esse eōs? what sort of piety do you think they
have? Font. 31.

tuae potestātis omnia sint, keep everything in your own control;
Liv. 22, 39, 21.

bīna castra commūniunt, they fortify two camps; Liv. 22, 44, 1

630. A collective noun is often qualified by a plural adjective (or participle), the gender being determined by the sense: —

pars perexigua Rōmam inermēs dēlātī sunt, a very small part were
taken unarmed to Rome; Liv. 2, 14, 8.

omnis aetās currere obvīi, people of all ages ran to meet them; Liv. 27,

631. If an adjective (or a participle) qualifies two or more nouns, it is usually plural, but it may be singular, in agreement with the nearest:—

Nisus et Euryalus primī, Nisus and Euryalus first; Aen. 5, 294.

rēs erat multae operae ac labōris, it was a matter of much effort and toil; B. G. 5, 11, 5.

632. An adjective (or a participle) qualifying two or more nouns of different genders, if attributive, agrees with the nearest noun: as, *hominis ūtilitātī agrōs omnīs et maria parentia, all the lands and seas subservient to the welfare of man; Tusc. 1, 69.* If predicate, it is usually masculine, if the nouns mean *persons*; neuter, if they mean *things*; sometimes, if the nouns form a connected idea, it agrees with the nearest:—

quam pridem pater mihi et māter mortuī essent, how long my father and mother had been dead; Ter. Eun. 517.

tempus et ratio administrandī ēius libera praetōrī permissa, time and manner of conducting this were left to the discretion of the praetor; Liv. 35, 25, 10.

ut braccia atque umerī liberī ab aquā esse possent, so that their arms and shoulders could be kept out of water; B. G. 7, 56, 4.

633. If the nouns include both persons and things, a predicate adjective (or participle) is sometimes masculine, sometimes neuter, and sometimes agrees with the nearest, if that is plural:—

rēx rēgiaque classis ūnā profecti, the king and the royal fleet set out together; Liv. 21, 50, 11.

inimica inter sē esse liberam cīvitātem et rēgem, that a free state and a king are incompatible; Liv. 44, 24, 2.

patrēs decrēvere lēgātōs sortēsque exspectandās, the senate decreed that the envoys and the prophecies should be awaited; Liv. 5, 15, 12.

634. Two or more masculine or feminine nouns denoting *things* are sometimes qualified by a *neuter* adjective (or participle) in the predicate:—

stultitiam et timiditatem et iniūstitiam dicimus esse fugienda, we say that folly, timidity, and injustice are to be avoided; Fin. 3, 39.

nox atque praeda hostis remorāta sunt, the night and plundering delayed the enemy; Sall. J. 6, 38, 8.

ADJECTIVES AND PARTICIPLES AS SUBSTANTIVES

635. In the singular, the masculine of an adjective is rarely used as a substantive except as a predicate genitive: as, **stultī erat spērāre**, *it was the part of a fool to hope*; Phil. 2, 23. The masculine of participles is used freely in any case except the nominative. The masculine nominative of adjectives and participles is sometimes used even in prose: as, **sī tabulam dē naufragiō stultus arripuerit, extorquēbitne eam sapiēns?** *if a fool snatches a board from a shipwreck, will the wise man pull it away from him?* Off. 3, 89. But it is rarely found unless qualified by a pronominal adjective, — **hic, quīdam**, etc. It is used more freely in poetry.

The substantive use of feminines is like that of masculines, but examples are rare.

636. Neuter adjectives and participles are used substantively in the singular in any case, but are most common with prepositions and as Genitive of the Whole: —

varium et mutābile semper fēmina, *woman is always a variable and changeable thing*; Aen. 4, 569.

raptō vivit, *he lives on plunder*; Liv. 22, 39, 13.

nāvēs in āridum subdūxerat, *he had drawn the ships upon dry land*; B. G. 4, 29, 2.

ex inspērātō, *unexpectedly*; Liv. 1, 25, 9.

aliquid bonī, *something good*; Ter. And. 398.

637. In the plural, masculine adjectives and participles are used freely as substantives in any case: —

ōdērunt peccāre bonī, *good men hate to sin*; Hor. Epis. 1, 16, 52.

contemptū regentium, *by contempt for those in power*; Tac. Ann. 12, 54.

suōs continēbat, *he restrained his men*; B. G. 1, 15, 4.

638. Neuter plurals, — e.g. **bona**, *good things*, **omnia**, *everything*, — are used freely in the nominative and accusative, rarely in the other cases.

639. Perfect Passive Participles used as substantives may be qualified either by adverbs or by adjectives:—

ob admissum foedē dictumve superbē, on account of a foul crime or a haughty word; Lucr. 5, 1224.

ferōcibus dictis, with fierce words; Liv. 23, 47, 4.

640. Some adjectives constantly used as substantives have become nouns, and may be qualified by adjectives; so, for example, the names of the months; *amicus, friend; inimicus, enemy; dextra, the right; sinistra, the left; fera, wild beast; hiberna, winter-quarters; patria, native land; propinquus, kinsman; rēgia, palace.*

ADJECTIVES INSTEAD OF ADVERBS

641. Adjectives are often used where adverbs would be used in English:—

erat Rōmae frequēns, he was often at Rome; Rosc. Am. 16.

invitus fēcī, I did it unwillingly; Cat. M. 42.

sē tōtōs trādidērunt voluptātibus, they have given themselves wholly to pleasure; Lael. 86.

Thus, instead of adverbs, the adjectives *prior, primus, princeps, postremus*, and *ultimus* are used to denote the first or last to do a thing: as, *Trōiae quī primus ab ōris vēnit, who first came from the shores of Troy; Aen. 1, 1.*

For the use of adverbs instead of adjectives see **648**.

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

642. Comparatives and Superlatives (adjectives and adverbs) have regularly the same meanings as in English, but they are often used where there is no definite comparison,—the comparative denoting a degree that is *rather high* or *too high* (that is, higher than usual), the superlative denoting a degree that is *very high*. This meaning of the superlative is the same as would be expressed by the positive with *admodum* or *valdē*, or by *per* or *prae* in composition with an adjective or adverb:—

senectūs est nātūrā loquācior, old age is naturally rather talkative;

Cat. M. 55.

vir fortissimus, a very brave man; B. C. 4, 12, 4.

643. The superlative is sometimes used when there are only *two* persons or things: as, **Numitōrī, quī maximus erat**, *to Numitor, who was the oldest (of two brothers)*; Liv. 1, 3, 10.

The superlative is often strengthened by *vel, even, longē, by far*, or, if an adjective, by *ūnus, the one*.

644. The superlative is used with **quam**, to denote the highest possible degree, often with the addition of a form of **possum**, *able*: —

quam plūrimum scribere, *to write as much as possible*; De Or. 1, 150.

quam maximis potest itineribus in Galliam contendit, *he hastens into Gaul by as rapid marches as he can*; B. G. 1, 7, 1.

quam mātūrrimē, *as early as possible*; B. G. 1, 33, 4.

For the superlative with *quisque* see 691.

645. When two qualities are compared, both adjectives or adverbs are regularly in the comparative, or, if **magis** is used, both are in the positive: —

vērior quam grātior, *more true than agreeable*; Liv. 22, 38, 8.

libentius quam vērīus, *with greater satisfaction than truth*; Mil. 78.

Celer disertus magis est quam sapiēns, *Celer is more eloquent than wise*; Att. 10, 1, 4.

Rarely the first adjective or adverb is in the comparative, the second in the positive, or both are in the positive: —

vehementius quam cautē, *more eagerly than cautiously*; Tac. Agr. 4.

clāris māiōribus quam vetustis, *of a family that was famous rather than old*; Tac. Ann. 4, 61.

646. The following adjectives — nearly all superlatives — in agreement often denote a *part* of an object: — **medius**, **reliquus**, **extrēmus**, **īmus**, **īntimus**, **postrēmus**, **prīmus**, **summus**, and **ultimus**: —

in colle mediō, *half way up the hill*; B. G. 1, 24, 2.

in extrēmō ponte, *at the end of the bridge*; B. G. 6, 29, 3.

summus mōns, *the top of the mountain*; B. G. 1, 22, 1.

So, also **multus** and **sērus** in such phrases as **multō diē**, *late in the day*, B. G. 1, 22, 4; and **nocte sērā**, *late at night*, Liv. 1, 57, 9.

SYNTAX OF ADVERBS

647. Adverbs are used to qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (or adverbial phrases):—

nūper pācātī erant, *they had been recently subdued*; B. G. 1, 6, 2.

tam propinquīs hostibus, *with the enemy so near*; B. G. 1, 16, 6.

minus facile, *less easily*; B. G. 1, 2, 4.

paene in cōspectū, *almost in sight*; B. G. 1, 11, 3.

For the classification of adverbs see 207-213.

648. Adverbs are sometimes used to qualify nouns, especially those containing a verbal or adjectival idea:—

hinc abitiō, *departure from here*; Pl. Rud. 503.

haud dubiē victor, *undoubtedly victorious*; Sall. Jug. 102, 1.

plānē vir, *in all respects a man*; Tusc. 2, 53.

maximō privātim periculō, nullō publicē ēmolumentō, *with very great personal danger and no public recognition*; Liv. 6, 39, 6.

649. Some common adverbs, — especially **bene**, **male**, **ita**, **satis**, and **sic**, — are often used as predicate adjectives:—

sī valēs, bene est, *if you are well, it is well*; Fam. 5, 1, 1.

satis esse ūnum cōsulem, *that one consul was enough*; Liv. 34, 43, 4.

For the use of adverbs as prepositions see 1025-1027.

650. Adverbs of *place* are sometimes used instead of a pronoun with a preposition:—

inde māiorem adoptāvi, *of these I adopted the older*; Ter. Ad. 47.
(*inde* = *ex eis*.)

apud eos quō sē contulit, *among those to whom he went*; Verr. 4, 38.
(*quō* = *ad quōs*.)

is unde tē audisse dicis, *he from whom you say you heard it*;
De Or. 2, 285. (*unde* = *ex quō*.)

For the meanings of the comparative and superlative of adverbs see 642-645.

THE USE OF CERTAIN ADVERBS

651. Of the adverbs meaning *so*, **tam** (like **adeō** and **eō**) denotes *degree*; **ita** and **sic** usually denote *manner*:—

tam opportunō tempore, *at so favorable a time*; B. C. 3, 36, 8.

sic milītēs cōsōlātus, *having thus consoled his troops*; B. G. 7, 19, 6.

652. *Certō* and *certē* mean *certainly*, but *certē* is used also in restricted affirmations, meaning *at least, at any rate*: as, *rēs fortassē vērae, certē gravēs, things perhaps true, at any rate important*; Fin. 4, 7.

653. *Iam* referring to past and present time means *already* or *now*, with reference to the time that has elapsed; referring to future time it means *immediately*; with negatives it means *(no) longer*.

654. *Nunc* refers to present time without reference to any other. After present contrary-to-fact conditions it is best translated *as it is*: as, *sī discere possēs fidem, ea disciplīna ā mē adhibita esset; nunc, etc., if you could learn good faith, I should have given you this lesson; as it is, etc.*; Liv. 1, 28, 9. So, *tunc*, then, after past contrary-to-fact conditions is best translated *as it was*.

655. *Primum* means *first* or *in the first place*, beginning or implying a *series*, and is often followed by *deinde*, next, or *tum*, then, and *dēnique* or *postrēmō*, finally.

Prīmō means *at first*, as opposed to *afterward*, emphasizing the idea of *time* only.

656. *Quidem*, *indeed, at least*, follows the word it emphasizes; it often has an adversative force, especially when followed by *sed, autem, etc.*: as, *est istuc quidem honestum, vērum hoc expedit, that is honorable to be sure, but this is expedient*; Off. 3, 75.

Nē . . . quidem means *not even, rarely not either*. The word or phrase emphasized stands between *nē* and *quidem*: as, *nē Vārus quidem dubitat cōpiās prōducere, nor does Varus either hesitate to lead out his troops*; B. C. 2, 33, 3.

NEGATIVE ADVERBS

657. *Nōn* is the negative for statements and questions, and is used also with single words. *Nē* is the negative for expressions of command or wish.

Nōn is sometimes used with the hortatory subjunctive (see 768). Ovid uses it even with the imperative.

658. **Haud** (*haut, hau*) negatives a single word and in classical Latin is commonly used only with adjectives and adverbs: as, **haud facile**, *not easily*; Sall. Cat. 13, 5. Cicero uses it with a few verbs, especially in the phrase **haud sciō an**, *I don't know but that*.

659. **Nec** is sometimes used for **nōn** in early writers and rarely in later writers, chiefly in the combinations **necdum**, *not yet*, and **necopināns**, *unaware*.

660. One negative in a clause usually counteracts another: as, **nōn possum nōn cōfiterī**, *I must confess*; Fam. 9, 14, 1. Thus **nōn nēmo** means *some one*, **nōnnumquam**, *sometimes*, etc.

After a general negative like **negō** or **numquam**, the cor-relatives **neque . . . neque**, **nēve . . . nēve**, and also **nē . . . quidem**, do not counteract, but add emphasis to the negative idea: as, **nihil umquam neque insolēns neque glōriōsum ex ore ēius exiit**, *nothing either insolent or boastful ever came from his lips*; Nep. Timol. 4, 2.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

661. The *person* of the verb is shown by its ending; hence, Personal Pronouns are regularly used as subjects only to express *emphasis* or *contrast*:—

quōs ego ā Catilinā nōn revocō, *these I, for my part, do not call away from Catiline*; Cat. 2, 22.

ego rēgēs eiēcī, vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcītis, *I drove out kings, you are bringing in tyrants*; ad Her. 4, 66.

662. The Latin has no personal pronoun of the third person except the reflexive **suī**. The lack is supplied by the demonstrative and relative pronouns.

663. The genitive singular of the personal pronouns, and of the reflexive **suī**, is usually objective, the possessive adjectives **meus**, **tuus**, and **suus** being regularly used instead of the possessive genitive.

Of the two forms of the genitive plural, that ending in *-ī* is used as an *objective genitive*; that ending in *-um* is used regularly as a *genitive of the whole*, sometimes as an *objective genitive*, and always when accompanied by *omnium*: —

habētis ducem memorem vestrī, oblitum suī, you have a leader mindful of you, forgetful of himself; Cat. 4, 19.

uterque nostrum, each one of us; Att. 13, 33, 2.

cūstōdem hūius urbis ac vestrum, guardian of this city and of you; Cat. 3, 29.

omnium nostrum vītam, the life of us all; Cat. 1, 14.

664. The plural of the personal pronoun of the first person is sometimes used instead of the singular as a conventional expression of modesty: as, *sitque memor nostrī necne, referte mihi, let me know whether she thinks of me or not*; Ov. Trist. 4, 3, 10.

665. The personal pronouns are used also as reflexive pronouns: as, *tū tē in cūstōdiam dedistī, you gave yourself into custody*; Cat. 1, 19.

THE REFLEXIVE PRONOUN

666. The Reflexive Pronoun *suī*, like the possessive adjective *suus* (see 619), in an independent clause refers regularly to the grammatical or logical subject; but often to some other word when the context makes the meaning clear: —

is sibi lēgatiōnem ad cīvitatēs suscēpit, he took upon himself an embassy to the states; B. G. 1, 3, 3.

cum etiam ferās inter sēsē nātūra conciliet, since nature makes even wild beasts friendly to one another; Rosc. Am. 63.

quōs studeō sārāre sibi ipsōs, I am eager to cure them for their own sakes; Cat. 2, 17.

667. In dependent clauses it may refer to the subject of the dependent clause; when so used, it is called a *Direct Reflexive*; or, it may refer to the subject of the main clause, and is then called an *Indirect Reflexive*. But the Indirect Reflexive is regu-

larly used only when the dependent clause expresses the words or thought of the subject of the main clause:—

sī qua sīgnificātiō virtūtis ēlūceat, ad quam sē similis animus adiungat, *if any indication of virtue should appear, to which a congenial mind may attach itself*; Lael. 48.

huic mandat ut ad sē revertātūr, *this man he orders to return to him*; B. G. 4, 21, 2.

ā Caesare invitor sibi ut sim lēgātus, *I am invited by Caesar to be his envoy*; Att. 2, 18, 3. (Referring to the logical subject.)

668. In indirect discourse, when the subject of the infinitive is different from that of the verb introducing it, the reflexive usually refers to the latter:—

Ariovistus respondit omnēs Galliae civitatēs ad sē oppugnandum vēnisse, *Ariovistus replied that all the states of Gaul had come to attack him*; B. G. 1, 44, 3.

Faustulō spēs fuerat, rēgiām stirpem apud sē ēducārī, *Faustulus had believed that children of royal birth were being reared in his house*; Liv. 1, 5, 5. (Referring to the logical subject of the introducing verb.)

nē exīstumārent sibi perditā rē pūblicā opus esse, *let them not think that he needed to destroy the state*; Sall. Cat. 31, 7. (Referring to the logical subject of the infinitive.)

669. The reflexive is sometimes used of an indefinite person like the English “one”: as, dēfōrme est dē sē ipsum praedicāre, *it is bad form to brag about one’s self*; Off. 1, 137.

670. Suus is sometimes strengthened by sibi, but chiefly in early and late Latin: as, suō sibi gladiō hunc iugulō, *with his own sword I kill him*; Ter. Ad. 958.

For the use of ipse as a reflexive pronoun see **675**.

For the use of is instead of the reflexive pronoun see **719**.

THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN

671. The Intensive Pronoun ipse, self, is used alone as a substantive, or in apposition with another word.

It is used alone as follows:—

672. (a) In the nominative, to emphasize an omitted subject of the first, second, or third person:—

moderābor ipse, I myself shall manage; De Or. 1, 111.

ipsi omnia ad nōs dēferunt, they themselves report everything to us; De Or. 1, 250.

673. (b) In any other case, as an emphatic pronoun of the third person:—

erat scriptum ipsius manū, it had been written in his own hand; Cat. 3, 10.

id rēi pūblicae praeclārum, ipsis glōriōsum, this was splendid for the state, glorious for themselves; Phil. 2, 27.

674. (c) To designate an important person:—

ipse dixit; "ipse" autem erat Pŷthagorās, the Master said; now the "Master" was Pythagoras; N. D. 1, 10.

Nōmentānus erat super ipsum, Nomentanus was above the host; Hor. S. 2, 8, 23.

675. (d) As an indirect reflexive, in a subordinate clause, referring to the subject of the main clause:—

pertimuerunt nē ab ipsis dēscisceret, they were afraid that he would abandon them; Nep. Alc. 7, 5, 1.

Ariovistus respondit sī quid ipsi ā Caesare opus esset, sēsē ad eum ventūrum fuisse, Ariovistus replied that, if he had wanted anything of Caesar, he would have come to him; B. G. 1, 34, 2.

676. If there is a reflexive pronoun in the predicate, *ipse* sometimes agrees with it, but more often it agrees with the subject:—

sē ipsum interfēcit, he killed himself; Tac. H. 3, 51.

mē ipse cōsōlor, I console myself; Lael. 10.

677. *Ipse* is used in apposition with nouns and pronouns; the form *ipsum* is used to intensify adverbs of time:—

ipse Caesar, Caesar himself; Fam. 6, 10, 2.

turpe mihi ipsi vidēbātur, even to me it seemed disgraceful; Phil. 1, 9.

nunc ipsum, just now; Att. 12, 16.

For the use of *ipse* with a possessive adjective, see **403**.

678. **Ipse** is used much more freely than the English *self* and is often to be translated *very, exactly, of one's own accord*, etc.:—

ad id ipsum creātus, elected for this very purpose; Liv. 2, 42, 5.

trīgintā diēs erant ipsī, there were exactly thirty days; Att. 3, 21.

arma ipsa cecidērunt, the arms fell of their own accord; Off. 1, 77.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

679. The Interrogative Pronoun referring to an indefinite number is **quis**, *who*; the corresponding adjective is **quī**, *what* or *of what kind* (= *quālis*):—

quis clārior Themistocle? who more famous than Themistocles?
Lael. 42.

scribis tē velle scīre quī sit rei pūblicae status, you write that you want to know what the state of the country is; Fam. 1, 7, 10.

680. The distinction between **quis** and **quī** is not always observed; **quis** is sometimes used as an adjective, **quī** as a substantive:—

quis eum senātor appellāvit? what senator addressed him? Cat. 2, 12.

quī nōminat mē? who calls my name? Ter. Ph. 990.

681. The Interrogative Pronoun and Adjective referring to two persons or things is **uter**, *which*: as, *ut oculis in utram partem fluat iūdicārī nōn possit, so that you cannot see in which direction it flows*; B. G. 1, 12, 1.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

682. **Quis**, *any one, some one*, is the most indefinite of the indefinite pronouns, and is rare except in combination with **sī**, **nisi**, **nē**, and certain interrogative and relative words, as **num**, **ubi**, etc. It always stands after one or more words of its clause:—

dixerit quis, some one may say; Off. 3, 76.

sī quid in tē peccāvi, if I have done you any wrong; Att. 3, 15, 4.

The corresponding Indefinite Adjective is **quī**; but, as in the case of the interrogative pronoun and adjective, the distinction is not always observed; see 680.

683. Aliquis (adjective, *aliquī*), **quispiam**, and **nesciō quis**, *some one*, all have about the same meaning, and are somewhat less vague than **quis**. Of similar meaning are the double negatives **nōn nūllī**, *some, several* (used also adjectively, as is the singular **nōn nūllus**), **nōn nēmō**, *some one*, and **nōn nihil**, *something*, but in these there is a fundamental idea of number or quantity.

Aliquis sometimes means a person or thing of *some importance*: —

ut mē velis esse aliquem, *that you want me to be somebody*; Att. 3, 15, 8.
meās esse aliquid putāre nūgās, *to think my nonsense of some value*;
Catull. 1, 4.

684. Quīdam, *a certain one*, is more definite, referring to one who might be named if necessary: as, **videō esse hīc quōsdam**, *I see that there are certain ones here*; Cat. 1, 8. As an adjective it is often used to soften the meaning of a noun: as, **timiditāte ingenuā quādam**, *by a sort of natural timidity*; De Or. 2, 10.

685. Quisquam (substantive and adjective), *any one*, and the adjective **ūllus** are used only in negative sentences or phrases, in questions implying a negative, in conditional clauses, and in clauses which follow a comparative and imply a negative: —

estne quisquam de quō melius existimēs tū? *is there any one of whom you have a better opinion?* Rosc. Com. 18.

sī cuiquam generī hominum probātus sit, *if he is approved by any class of men*; Verr. 2, 17.

saepius cum hoste cōffixit quam quisquam cum inimicō cōcertāvit, *he fought more often with the enemy than any one ever wrangled with a personal foe*; Manil. 28.

sine ūllō metū, *without any fear*; Verr. 5, 96.

nī offerumentās habēbis plūris in tergō tuō quam ūlla nāvis longa clāvōs, *unless you have more stripes on your back than any man-of-war has nails*; Pl. Rud. 753.

686. Quīvīs and **quīlibet** mean *any one whatever*, referring to more than two; **utervīs** and **uterlibet**, *either*, of two. **Neuter**

means *neither*, of two; in the plural it refers to two groups: as, **neutrī alterōs primō cernēbant**, *at first neither side saw the other*; Liv. 21, 46, 4.

687. **Nēmō**, besides its regular use as a pronoun, is sometimes used as an adjective, in place of **nūllus**, and is regularly so used with a proper name, another pronoun, or an adjective or participle used substantively: —

ut hominem nēminem plūris faciam, *that I rate no man more highly*;

Fam. 13, 55, 1.

nēmō Cornēlius, *no Cornelius*; Att. 6, 1, 18.

nēmō quisquam, *no one at all*; Ter. Eun. 1032.

nēmō Arpinās, *no one of Arpinum*; Planc. 22.

688. **Nūllus**, *not any, no*, regularly an adjective, is often used as a substantive in the plural and sometimes in the singular; the genitive and ablative singular are regularly used instead of the corresponding cases of **nēmō**: —

nūllis vīta posset esse iūcundior, *to none could life be more pleasant*;

Tusc. 1, 94.

nūllius insector calamitātem, *I persecute no one's misfortune*; Phil.

2, 98.

beneficia ab nūllō repetere, *he asked favors of no one*; Sall. Jug. 96, 2.

689. **Quicumque**, *whoever*, properly a relative pronoun, is often used, especially in the ablative, as an indefinite pronoun or adjective, *any whatever*: as, **quī quācumque dē causā ad eōs vēnērunt**, *who have come to them for any reason whatever*; B. G. 6, 23, 9.

DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

690. **Quisque**, *each, every*, refers to more than two; **uterque** is *each*, of two.

691. **Quisque** almost never stands first in its clause, and regularly follows the word with which it is most closely connected in sense. It is often used with superlatives to indicate not an *individual* but a *class*: as, **optimus quisque**, *all the best men*; Arch. 26; so, with two superlatives, — **in omni arte opti-**

mum quidque rārissimum est, *in every art the best is always the most rare*; Fin. 2, 81; and with ordinal numerals: as, **quīntō quōque annō Sicilia tōta cēnsētur**, *every fifth year all Sicily is assessed*; Verr. 2, 139.

The combination of **quisque** with the reflexive pronoun was so common that it is sometimes used irregularly, without construction, as if it were an indeclinable word: as, **multis sibi quisque imperium petentibus**, *many seeking power, each for himself*; Sall. Jug. 18, 3.

692. **Uterque** in the plural, except when it is used with a noun plural in form but singular in meaning, refers to two groups: —

pugnātum est ab utrisque ācritē, *both sides fought vigorously*; B. G. 4, 26, 1.

utrisque castris, *for each camp*; B. G. 1, 51, 1.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

693. Relative Pronouns and Adjectives are connecting words, which refer to a substantive (called the Antecedent), and serve to introduce clauses usually subordinate. Relatives are either *definite*, as **quī**, *who*; **quālis**, *of which kind*; or *indefinite*, as **quicumque**, *whoever*; **quālis cumque**, *of whatever kind*. The definite relatives are sometimes indefinite, as **quī** meaning *whoever*. The indefinite relatives are always compounded forms.

694. The relative pronoun is never omitted in Latin, as it is in English: as, **equitātum omnem quem habēbat**, *all the cavalry he had*; B. G. 1, 15, 1.

695. The antecedent (especially if it is **diēs**, **locus**, or **rēs**) is sometimes repeated in the relative clause: as, **iter in ea loca facere coepit quibus in locis esse Germānōs audiēbat**, *he began to make a journey into those places in which he heard the Germans were*; B. G. 4, 7, 1.

696. The relative clause often precedes the one containing the antecedent; when this occurs, the antecedent is sometimes placed in the relative clause, taking the case of the relative

pronoun; the antecedent may then be represented in its own clause by a demonstrative pronoun:—

quās rēs in cōsulātū nostrō gessimus, attigit hic versibus, what things I did in my consulship, he has touched upon in his verses; Arch. 28.

quae pars civitātis calamitātem populō Rōmānō intulerat, ea princeps poenās persolvit, that part of the state which had brought disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty; B. G. I, 12, 6.

697. The antecedent is sometimes attracted into the case of the relative pronoun, even when it is not included in the relative clause: as, *Naucratem quem convenire volui in nāvī nōn erat, Naucrates whom I wanted to find was not on the ship; Pl. Am. 1009.*

698. An antecedent which would naturally be an *appositive* in the main clause usually stands in the relative clause, agreeing in case with the relative pronoun: as, *Amānum contendī, quī mōns erat hostium plēnus, I pushed on to Amanus, a mountain that was covered with the enemy; Att. 5, 20, 3.*

699. An adjective, usually a superlative or numeral, properly belonging to the antecedent, sometimes stands in the relative clause, agreeing with the relative: as, *vāsa ea quae pulcherrima apud eum viderat, those very beautiful vessels which he had seen at his house; Verr. 4, 63.*

700. In colloquial language the relative clause sometimes contains a redundant demonstrative pronoun without construction, which might properly stand in the main clause: as, *ille quī cavet, diūtīnē utī bene licet partum bene, he who is on his guard may enjoy for a long time what he has well obtained; Pl. Rud. 1240. (Cf. 714.)*

701. The antecedent is often omitted, especially if it is indefinite:—

sunt qui dicant, there are those who say; Cat. 2, 12.

bene est cui deus obtulit quod satis est, blessed is the man to whom Heaven has given what is enough; Hor. C. 3, 16, 43.

702. A relative clause may refer to an idea as its antecedent; it is then introduced by *quod*, *id quod*, or *quae rēs*: as, *sī ā vōbīs, id quod nōn spērō, dēserar, if I should be deserted by you, which I do not expect; Rosc. Am. 10.*

703. A relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in *gender* and *number*; its *case* is determined by its construction in the clause in which it stands: as, **ānulum quem habēret, pallium quō amictus, soccōs quibus indūtus esset suā manū cōnfēcisse**, *the ring which he wore, the cloak with which he was covered, the slippers he had on, he had made with his own hand*; De Or. 3, 127.

704. Rarely a relative pronoun is attracted into the case of its antecedent: as, **cum aliquid agās eōrum quōrum cōnsuēstī**, *when you do something of those things that you are wont to do*; Fam. 5, 14, 1.

705. If a relative has more than one antecedent it is in the plural, and if they are of different genders, it follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives (see **632, 633**): —

frūgēs atque fructūs quōs terra gignit, *the fruits and crops which the earth produces*; N. D. 2, 37.

ōtium atque divitiāe, quae prima mortālēs putant, *leisure and wealth, which men reckon of the first importance*; Sall. Cat. 36.

706. If the antecedent is a collective noun, the relative may be in the plural: as, **equitātum praemittit quī videant**, *he sends the cavalry forward to see*; B. G. 1, 15, 1.

707. If the relative clause contains a predicate noun meaning the same person or thing as the antecedent, the relative usually agrees with the predicate noun: as, **animal hoc quem vocāmus hominem**, *that animal which we call man*; Legg. 1, 22.

708. A relative sometimes agrees with a personal pronoun implied in a possessive, or with some other word easily supplied from the context: —

vestrā quī cum aummā integritāte vixistis, hoc maximē interest, *this is of the greatest importance to you who have lived with the greatest integrity*; Sull. 79.

coniūrāvēre pauci, dē quā (sc. coniūratiōne) dicam, *a few have conspired, and of this (conspiracy) I will speak*; Sall. Cat. 18, 1.

709. A relative clause containing an abstract noun, the antecedent of the relative pronoun, is sometimes used to characterize a person: as, **spērō, quae tua prūdētia est, tē valēre**, *I hope you are well, such is your prudence*; Att. 6, 9, 1. The same idea may be expressed by the Genitive of Quality, **cūius es prūdētiaē**, or by **prō** with the ablative, **prō tuā prūdētiā**.

710. A relative pronoun is sometimes equivalent to a personal or demonstrative pronoun, and may introduce a clause which is not subordinate:—

quae cum ita sint, since these things are so; Cat. 1, 10.

quae rēs magnō ūsuī nostris fuit, this thing was of great service to our men; B. G. 4, 25, 1.

For the use of a *relative adverb* instead of a relative pronoun in expressions of *place* see 660.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

711. The Demonstrative Pronouns are *hic*, *ille*, *is*, *iste*, and *idem*. They are used either as substantives or as adjectives. As substantives they supply the lack of a personal pronoun of the third person; as adjectives they follow the rules for the agreement of adjectives.

712. *Hic*, *this*, refers to what is near the speaker in place, time, or thought:—

hī sunt extrā prōvinciam primī, these are the first outside the province; B. G. 1, 10, 5.

hīs paucīs diēbus, in these last few days; B. G. 3, 17, 3.

hic tamen vivit, yet this man lives; Cat. 1, 2.

Hic sometimes refers to the speaker himself: as, *haec arma et hunc militem accipiās, receive these arms and this soldier (i.e. me myself); Liv. 2, 10, 11.*

713. *Ille*, *that*, refers to what is remote from the speaker in place, time, or thought:—

dē illius discessū, concerning his departure; Att. 11, 18, 1.

sōl mē ille admonuit, that sun has reminded me; De Or. 3, 209.

It sometimes refers to what is familiar:—

hic est ille Dēmōsthenēs, this is the famous Demosthenes; Tusc. 5, 103.

Mēdēa illa, the well-known Medea; Manil. 22.

714. In poetry *ille* is sometimes used superfluously, but with the effect of increased emphasis upon the person or thing thus designated:—

quem neque fidēs neque iūs iūrāndum neque illum misericordia repressit,
whom neither honor nor oath nor pity restrained; Ter. Ad. 306.

nunc dextrā ingemināns ictūs, nunc ille sinistrā, *now with his right hand
 showering blows, now he, the same man, with his left; Aen. 5, 457.*

715. *Ille* and *hic* sometimes mean respectively *the former* and *the latter*, referring to two persons or things just mentioned: as, *Caesar beneficiis ac mūnificentiā magnus habēbātur, integritate vitae Catō; ille mānsuētūdine et misericordiā clārus factus, huic sevērītās dignitatem addiderat, Caesar was held great for his kindness and generosity, Cato for the integrity of his life; the former became famous through humanity and mercy, the latter's dignity was based upon austerity; Sall. Cat. 54, 2.*

But *hic* sometimes means *the former*, *ille* *the latter*, when the person or thing designated by *hic* is more prominent in the speaker's mind: as, *melior est certa pāx quam spērāta victōria; haec in tuā, illa in deōrum manū est, certain peace is better than hoped-for victory; the former is in your hands, the latter in the hands of the gods; Liv. 30, 30, 19.*

716. *Is*, *this* or *that*, is more indefinite than *hic* or *ille*, referring either to what is near or to what is remote. It is used as a personal pronoun of the third person whenever the context does not call for the more definite *hic* or *ille*. It is often explained by a relative clause, of which it is the antecedent: —

ex eō locō ad flūmen contendērunt, from this place they hastened to the river; B. G. 2, 9, 3.

sī obsidēs ab iis dentur, if hostages should be given by them; B. G. 1, 14, 6.

is quī erit adductus in iūdicium, he who shall be brought to trial; Verr. 3, 207.

717. *Is* is sometimes similar in meaning to *tālis*, *such*: as, *neque is sum quī mortis periculō terrear, I am not the sort of man that is frightened by danger of death; B. G. 5, 30, 2.*

718. In combination with a connective *is* is sometimes used like the English *and that too*: — *Digitized by Microsoft®*

vincula, et ea sempiterna, imprisonment and that too for life; Cat. 4, 7.
negotium magnum est nāvigāre atque id mēnae Quīnctīlī, it is a great
piece of business to make a voyage, and that too in the month of July;
Att. 5, 12, 1.

719. *Is* is sometimes used instead of the reflexive pronoun: as, *persuādent Rauracis utī ūnā cum iis proficiscantur, they persuade the Rauraci to set out with them; B. G. 1, 5, 4.*

720. *Hic, ille,* and *is* refer either to what precedes or to what follows in time or thought.

721. *Iste, that of yours,* refers to what is near the person addressed or to what relates to him or affects him:—

ista subsellia vacuēfacta sunt, the benches near you were deserted;
Cat. 1, 16.

ista praetūra, that praetorship of yours; Verr. 2, 46.

It is used also without personal reference, to express contempt: as, *animī est ista mollitia, that is weakness of mind; B. G. 7, 77, 5.*

722. A neuter pronoun often refers to a clause either preceding or following:—

hoc dicō nullū tē signum reliquisse, this I say that you left not a statue; Verr. 1, 53.

eō, quod Minucius prosperē pugnāset, on this account, because Minucius had fought successfully; Liv. 22, 34, 5.

723. The word *that*, as used in the English phrase *that of*, is regularly omitted: as, *sōlis candor illūstrior est quam ūllius Ignis, the light of the sun is brighter than that of any fire; N. D. 2, 40.* Sometimes the noun is repeated: as, *nūlla est celeritās quae possit cum animī celeritāte contendere, there is no quickness which can rival the quickness of the mind; Tusc. 1, 43.*

724. *Hic, ille, is,* and *iste* (usually *ille*) sometimes acquire a concessive force by the addition of *quidem*: as, *librī scripti ab optimis illis quidem viris, sed nōn satis ēruditis, books written by men excellent to be sure, but insufficiently educated; Tusc. 1, 6.*

725. *Idem, the same,* refers to what has been mentioned or is about to be mentioned, or identifies two or more persons or things denoted by the same substantive; or, as an adjective, it means *unchanging*:—*Digitized by Microsoft®*

eōdem tempore, at the same time (just mentioned); B. G. 2, 24, 1.
causās simillimās inter sē vel potius eādem, cases very much like one
another or rather just the same; Brut. 324.
īdem semper vultus, always the same expression; Off. 1, 90.

726. *Īdem* is often used where the English would use *more-over* or *yet*:—

splendida et eadem in primis facēta ōratiō, a fine speech and more-over an exceedingly bright one; Brut. 273.
rēbus angustis animōsus appārē; sapienter īdem contrahēs vēla,
in straitened circumstances show a good spirit; yet if you are wise,
you will take in your sails, etc.; Hor. C. 2, 10, 21.

727. To express the idea *the same as*, *īdem* is used with *quī*, *atque* or *ac*, *ut*, the preposition *cum*, and, in poetry, the dative.

728. A demonstrative pronoun usually agrees with a predicate noun, if there is one, rather than with the word to which it refers; so, also, a demonstrative pronoun used in an indefinite sense as subject or object regularly agrees with a predicate noun:—

hic locus est ūnus quō perfugiant; hic portus, haec arx, haec āra
sociōrum, this is the only place where they can take refuge; this
is the harbor, this the citadel, this the altar of the allies; Verr. 5, 126.
ea erat cōfessiō caput Rōmam esse, this was a confession that Rome
was the capital; Liv. 1, 45, 3.
eās divitiās putābant, they thought this to be wealth; Sall. Cat. 6.

ALIUS AND ALTER

729. *Alius* might be included among indefinite pronouns, *alter* among demonstratives, but on account of similarity of meaning and use they are best treated together. They are used both as pronouns and as adjectives.

730. *Alius*, when used alone, means *other, another*, referring to more than two; it is used also correlatively, *alius . . . alius, one . . . another*. *Alter*, when used alone, means either *one or the other*, of two or sometimes, *the second*, of a series;

it is used also correlatively, *alter . . . alter, the one . . . the other*: —

divitiās aliī praepōnunt, aliī potentiam, some prefer wealth, others power; Lael. 20.

fuit claudus alterō pede, he was lame in one foot; Nep. Ages. 8, 1.

proximō, alterō, tertiō, dēnique reliquīs cōsecūtis diēbus, on the first, second, third, and then the rest of the days that followed; Phil. 1, 32.

alter exercitum perdidit, alter vēndidit, one lost his army, the other sold it; Planc. 86.

731. The phrases *alius . . . alius* and *alter . . . alter* are used also in a *reciprocal* sense:—

alius ex aliō causam quaerit, they ask one another the reason; B. G. 6, 37, 6.

ut alter alterī inimicus auxiliō esset, so that one enemy helped the other; B. G. 5, 44, 13.

In this sense *uterque* is sometimes used instead of *alter*: as, *uterque utriūque cordī, each is dear to the other*; Ter. Ph. 800.

The reciprocal idea is expressed also by *inter nōs* (or *vōs* or *sē*): as, *cohortātī inter sē, encouraging one another*; B. G. 4, 25, 5.

732. By a condensed form of expression *alius* is used only twice in a clause or phrase to mean *one . . . one, another . . . another*: as, *aliud aliī nātūra iter ostendit, nature points out one road to one man, another to another*; Sall. Cat. 2, 9. So, with an adverb in place of one pronoun:—*aliās aliud sentiunt, they think one thing at one time, another at another*; Or. 2, 30.

733. As distinct from *aliī*, *cēteri* means *all the others, the rest*; so, also *reliquī*, but in this word the idea of completeness is not so definite.

SYNTAX OF VERBS

VOICE

734. The Active and Passive Voices have usually the same meanings as in English.

With rare exceptions intransitive verbs are used only impersonally in the passive, that is in the third person singular:

as, *ibātur in eam sententiam*, *they came (it was gone) to that decision*; Q. Fr. 2, 1, 3. But compounds of intransitive verbs (e.g. *conveniō*, *meet*) may have a complete passive voice.

The passive voice is sometimes used in a reflexive sense: —

accingitur ēnse, *he girds himself with a sword*; Aen. 7, 640.

ut lavārentur in flūminibus, *that they bathe in the rivers*; B. G. 4, 1, 10.

umerōs insternor pelle, *I cover my shoulders with a skin*; Aen. 2, 721.

AGREEMENT OF THE VERB WITH ITS SUBJECT

735. A verb agrees with its subject in *number* and *person*: —

hōs ego videō cōsul, *I the consul see these*; Cat. 1, 9.

vōbīs populi Rōmānī praesidia nōn dēsunt; *vōs nē populō Rōmānō deesse videāminī prōvidēte*, *the protection of the Roman people is not wanting to you; look out that you may not seem to be wanting to the Roman people*; Cat. 4, 18.

736. A *collective noun* sometimes takes a plural verb: —

cum tanta multitudō lapidēs conicerent, *when so great a crowd were throwing stones*; B. G. 2, 6, 3.

pars maior recēpērunt sēsē, *the greater part retired*; Liv. 34, 47, 6.

The distributives *quisque* and *uterque* sometimes take a plural verb: as, *uterque eōrum exercitum ēducunt*, *each one of them leads out his army*; B. C. 3, 30, 3.

737. With two or more singular subjects the verb may be in the plural: as, *et Q. Maximus et L. Paullus iis temporibus fuērunt*, *both Quintus Maximus and Lucius Paullus lived at those times*; Fam. 4, 6, 1. Or, the verb may be in the singular: as, *Orgetorigis filia atque ūnus ē filiis captus est*, *the daughter of Orgetorix and one of his sons were captured*; B. G. 1, 26, 4.

With two or more singular subjects denoting things and regarded as expressing a single idea, the verb is usually in the singular: as, *fāma et vīta innocentis dēfenditur*, *the reputation and life of an innocent man are defended*; Rosc. Am. 15.

738. With singular and plural subjects combined, the verb may be in the plural or, if the nearest subject is singular, the

verb may be in the singular: as, **quantō in periculō et castra et legiōnēs et imperātor versārētur**, *in what danger the camp, the legions, and the commander were involved*; B. G. 2, 26, 5.

739. A singular subject accompanied by an ablative with **cum** may take a plural verb: as, **Lentulus cum cēteris cōstituerant**, *Lentulus with the others had decided*; Sall. Cat. 43, 1.

740. If the subjects are of different *persons*, the verb is in the first person rather than the second or third, and in the second rather than the third: as, **sī tū et Tullia valētis, ego et Cicerō valēmus**, *if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well*; Fam. 14, 5, 1.

741. A verb having a relative as its subject is in the person of the expressed or implied antecedent:—

adsum quī fēcī, *I who did it am here*; Aen. 9, 427.

tū quī scīs, *you who know*; Att. 5, 2, 3.

742. In the compound forms of the passive system the participle agrees with the subject in gender, number, and case:—

cum id nūtiātum esset, *when this had been announced*; B. G. 1, 7, 1.

sē ad eam rem parātōs esse arbitrātī sunt, *they thought that they were ready for this thing*; B. G. 1, 5, 2.

With subjects of different numbers or genders the participle follows the rules for the agreement of adjectives; see **631-634**.

For the agreement of a verb with an appositive see **388**; for agreement with a predicate noun see **396**.

MOODS AND TENSES

INDICATIVE MOOD

743. The Indicative Mood is used as follows:—

(a) In independent declarative sentences which state a fact: as, **castra movent**, *they move the camp*; B. G. 1, 15, 1.

(b) In independent interrogative sentences which make inquiry regarding a fact: as, **quid tē impedit?** *what hinders you?* Cat. 1, 28.

(c) In exclamatory statements of fact: as, *reliquit quōs virōs!* *what men he has left!* Cat. 2, 4.

(d) In dependent clauses which state or assume a fact. These include certain types of relative, temporal, causal, adversative, conditional, and substantive clauses; examples of the use of the indicative are given in the treatment of these clauses.

744. The indicative in questions introduced by *quīn* is sometimes equivalent to a command or exhortation:—

quīn tū addūcis lōrum? *why don't you tighten the strap?* Liv. 9, 10, 7.

quīn cōscendimus equōs? *why don't we mount our horses?* Liv. 1, 57, 7.

From this comes the use of *quīn* with the imperative: as, *quīn sic attendite, iūdicēs*, *consider it in this way, judges*, — *why not?* Mil. 79.

The Use of the Tenses of the Indicative Mood

The meanings and uses of the six tenses of the indicative are as follows:—

745. The Present Tense represents an action as occurring or as actually in progress, or a condition as existing in present time: as, *epistulās scribō*, *I write letters*; *epistulam scribō*, *I am writing a letter*; *valet*, *he is well*. It is used also of a general truth: as, *rīsū ineptō rēs ineptior nūlla est*, *nothing is more foolish than foolish laughter*; Catull. 39, 16.

746. The present sometimes represents an action as attempted or as just about to occur; this is called the Conative Present:—

quī mortis poenam removet, *who wants to set aside the death penalty*; Cat. 4, 7.

iam iamque manū tenet, *he is just about to grasp him*; Aen. 2, 530.

747. The present is sometimes used instead of the future:—

crās est mihi iūdicium, *to-morrow I have a case in court*; Ter. Eun. 338.

sī vincimus, omnia tūta erunt, *if we conquer, everything will be safe*; Sall. Cat. 58, 9.

antequam ad sententiam redeō, dē mē pauca dicam, *before I return to the subject, I shall say a little about myself*; Cat. 4, 20.

748. In vivid narration the present is often used of an action occurring in past time; this is called the Historical Present:—

ad eum Caesar lēgātōs mittit, *Caesar sends envoys to him*; B. G. 1, 35, 1.

postquam mūrum arietibus ferīri vident, aurum atque argentum domum rēgiam comportant, *when they see that the wall is being assailed with battering-rams, they take the gold and silver to the palace*; Sall. Jug. 76, 6.

749. With expressions denoting duration of time (usually with *iam*) the present is used to indicate that an action or condition begun in the past still continues:—

tē iam dūdum hortor, *I have long been urging you*; Cat. 1, 12.

Lilybaei multōs iam annōs habitat, *he has lived at Lilybaeum now these many years*; Verr. 4, 38.

annī sunt octō cum ista causa versātur, *it is now eight years that this case has been before us*; Clu. 82.

Similarly, the present imperative is used rarely with *iam dūdum*: as, iam dūdum sūmite poenās, *exact the penalty long since due*; Aen. 2, 103.

750. The present indicative is sometimes used instead of the subjunctive, in deliberative questions:—

quoi dōnō lepidum novum libellum? *to whom am I to dedicate my bright new book?* Catull. 1, 1.

advolōne an maneō? *shall I fly or shall I wait?* Att. 13, 40, 2.

quid agō? *what am I to do?* Aen. 4, 534.

751. The Imperfect Tense represents an action or condition as continuing or repeated in past time:—

vitam parcē agēbat, *she used to live economically*; Ter. And. 74.

āra vetus stābat, *an old altar stood there*; Ov. Met. 6, 326.

commentābar dēclāmitāns cottidiē, *I practised declaiming every day*; Brut. 310.

752. The imperfect sometimes represents an action or condition as just beginning, or as only intended:—

iamque arva tenēbant, *and they were just reaching the fields*; Aen. 2, 209.

quod tuā sponte faciēbās, *which you were going to do of your own accord*; Cat. 1, 13.

sī licitum esset, veniēbant, *they were coming, if it had been allowed*; Verr. 5, 129.

753. The imperfect is used with expressions denoting duration of time, to indicate that an action begun at an earlier time was still continuing in past time: —

cōpiās quās diū comparābant, *the forces which they had long been gathering*; Fam. 11, 13, 5.

iam dūdum flēbam, *I had been weeping for a long time*; Ov. Met. 3, 656.

For the use of the imperfect indicative in the apodosis of contrary-to-fact conditions see 921-923.

754. The Future Tense denotes an action or condition which will occur or be in progress in future time: as, *epistulam scribam*, *I shall write a letter*, or, *I shall be writing a letter*; *aderō*, *I shall be present*.

A verb in the future may contain a mere statement of fact, or it may contain a promise or an expression of determination: as, *vivum tē nōn relinquam*; *moriēre virgīs*, *I will not leave you alive*; *you shall die under the rod*; Verr. 4, 85. Thus the future indicative in the second person sometimes has the force of an imperative: as, *nūntius ibis Pēlidae*, *you will go as a messenger to the son of Peleus*; Aen. 2, 547.

755. Latin is more accurate than English in the expression of time and regularly uses the future in subordinate clauses 'where, in English, futurity is expressed only in the principal clause, and the present is used in the subordinate clause: —

nātūram sī sequēmur ducem, numquam aberrābimus, *if we follow nature as our guide, we shall never go astray*; Off. 1, 100.

nunc animum advortite dum argūmentum hūius ēloquar comoediae, *now attend while I set forth the plot of this comedy*; Pl. Am. 95.

756. The future is sometimes used to denote the future discovery of a present fact: —

sic erit, *you'll find it so*; Ter. Ph. 801.

hoc verum erit, *this will prove to be true*; Ter. Eun. 732.

757. The future indicative is sometimes used instead of the subjunctive in deliberative questions: as, **dēdēmus ergō Hannibalem?** *are we then to surrender Hannibal?* Liv. 21, 10, 11.

758. The Perfect Tense has two distinct meanings: it may represent an action or condition as completed in present time, or it may be used like the English past tense. Thus, **epistulam scripsī** may mean *I have written a letter* or *I wrote a letter*. The first use is called the Present Perfect, the second the Historical Perfect. The perfect is the regular tense of narration. It is used not only of isolated occurrences, but also of an action or a condition which continued for some time, when the writer wishes merely to state, not to describe the fact.

759. The perfect is sometimes used to indicate briefly, but emphatically, that a condition has ceased to exist: as, **fuimus Trōes, fuit Ilium**, *we have ceased to be Trojans, Ilium has perished*; Aen. 2, 325. It is sometimes used referring to the future, in order to emphasize the certainty of a result by representing it as already accomplished: as, **sī eundem (animum) habueritis, vīcimus**, *if you shall have the same spirit, we have conquered*; Liv. 21, 43, 2.

760. The perfect is sometimes used, especially in poetry, of a *general truth* (called the Gnostic Perfect), implying that what has always been, continues and will continue to be:—

rēgē amissō cōnstrūcta mella diripuēre, *when their king is lost they plunder the honeycombs*; Georg. 4, 213.

nūllum saeva caput Prōserpina fūgit, *not one soul does cruel Proserpina pass by*; Hor. C. 1, 28, 19.

761. Certain perfects, pluperfects, and future perfects have the meanings of the present, imperfect or perfect, and future respectively. These are **meminī**, *I remember*, **odī**, *I hate*, and **coepī**, *I begin* (see 344); also, **nōvī** and **cognōvī**, *I know (I have learned)*, and **cōnsuēvī**, *I am accustomed (I have accustomed myself)*.

762. Sometimes in subordinate clauses the perfect is used where the context would seem to demand the pluperfect; in these cases the writer makes the statement from his own point of view without reference to the

context: *as, quia p̄acis auctōrēs fuērunt, iūs belli Achivōs abstinuisse, because they advised peace, the Greeks refrained from using the privilege of war; Liv. 1, 1, 1.*

763. The Pluperfect Tense represents an action or condition as completed in past time: *as, epistulam scripseram, I had written a letter; adhuc valueram, up to that time I had been in good health.*

764. The Future Perfect Tense represents an action or condition as completed in future time: *as, epistulam scripserō, I shall have written a letter; refrixerit rēs, the matter will have lost interest.*

This tense is much more common in Latin than in English, which often uses the present or perfect in subordinate clauses, when accuracy would demand the future perfect: —

carmina tum melius, cum v̄enerit ipse, canēmus, we shall sing our songs better when he comes himself; Ecl. 9, 67.

eum cum viderō, Arpinum pergam, when I have seen him, I shall go to Arpinum; Att. 9, 15, 1.

765. The future perfect is sometimes used instead of the future to emphasize the certainty of the completed act: —

“quid cessās?” “fēcero,” “why do you delay?” “I’ll do it at once”; Ter. Ph. 882.

qui Antonium oppresserit bellum cōfēcirit, whoever crushes (shall have crushed) Antony will have finished the war; Fam. 10, 19, 2.

Epistolary Tenses

766. In letters the writer sometimes uses tenses which are appropriate to the time when the letter is received; that is, he treats occurrences from the point of view of the recipient of the letter. Thus he may use the imperfect or the perfect instead of the present, the pluperfect instead of the present perfect: —

proficiscēbar inde pridīē Nōnās Quinctilēs, cum hoc ad tē litterārum dedī, I am setting out from here on the sixth of July, when I send this letter to you; Fam. 2, 8, 3.

hiems rem gerī prohibuerat, the winter has prevented the thing from being done; Fam. 12, 5, 2.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

767. The Subjunctive Mood is a combination of two moods which existed independently in the Indo-European language from which Latin is derived, — the Subjunctive and the Optative. The Indo-European Subjunctive had two uses: — (a) it expressed the *will* of the speaker; (b) it expressed *futurity*. The Indo-European Optative also had two uses: — (a) it expressed the *wish* of the speaker; (b) it expressed *possibility*. Of these four uses the Latin Subjunctive retains three, — it expresses *will*, *wish*, and *possibility*. It is probable that the Latin Subjunctive was at one time used also to express *futurity*, but in the literary period this use had disappeared except in certain types of subordinate clauses, and the origin of the use of the subjunctive in such clauses is a matter of dispute.

The Subjunctive used as an expression of *will* is called the Volitive Subjunctive; as an expression of *wish*, the Optative Subjunctive; and as an expression of *possibility*, the Potential Subjunctive, the Subjunctive of Action Conceivable, etc. From these three uses all other uses of the Subjunctive in independent and subordinate clauses are derived.

Subjunctive Mood in Independent Clauses

Volitive Subjunctive

Subjunctive of Exhortation or Command

768. The subjunctive is used to express an *exhortation* or a *command*. The negative is regularly *nē*, rarely *nōn*.

In early and colloquial Latin the second person singular (especially *sīs*) is often used in positive commands. Otherwise, the second person is used only in prohibitions (then almost always the perfect tense), or when the subject is indefinite:—

hoc quod coepī primum enārrem, *let me first tell the story I've begun*;

Ter. Heaut. 273.

amēmus patriam, *let us love our fatherland*; Sest. 143.

ā lēgibus nōn recedāmus, *let us not depart from the laws*; Clu. 155.

nē trānsieris Hībērum, don't cross the Ebro; Liv. 21, 44, 6.

nē exspectētis, don't wait; Pl. Ps. 1234.

istō bonō ūtāre dum adsit, use this blessing while you have it; Cat. M. 33.

cautus sīs, mī Tirō, be careful, my dear Tiro; Fam. 16, 9, 4.

aut bibat aut abeat, let him either drink or go away; Tusc. 5, 118.

dēsinant insidiārī cōnsulī, let them cease to plot against the consul; Cat. 1, 32.

769. The subjunctive of exhortation or command is sometimes used in the imperfect or pluperfect, to denote an unfulfilled obligation in past time:—

urbis periculō commovērentur, they ought to have been moved (literally, they were to be moved) by the danger to the city; Sest. 54.
imitātus essēs Vocōnium, you ought to have imitated Voconius; Verr. 1, 107.

nē poposcissēs, you should not have asked; Att. 2, 1, 3.

770. This type of subjunctive is sometimes equivalent to a clause of *concession*, the present referring to present time, the perfect to past time:—

nē faciat ea quae iuvenēs, at multō māiōra facit, though he does not do (literally, let him not do) the things that young men do, still he does much greater things; Cat. M. 17.

fuerit aliīs, tibi quandō esse coepit? suppose he was to others, when did he begin to be to you? Verr. 1, 37.

Deliberative Subjunctive

771. This is a form of the Volitive Subjunctive used originally in questions which asked the will or advice of the person addressed. The negative is *nōn*.

The usage is extended to real deliberative questions which a person puts to himself, and to questions of a purely rhetorical and often exclamatory nature which imply the impossibility of the thing mentioned. The present is used of present time, the imperfect, rarely the perfect, of past time:—

quid igitur faciam? nōn eam? what then am I to do? am I not to go? Ter. Eun. 46. Digitized by Microsoft®

huic cēdāmus? *shall we yield to him?* Phil. 13, 16.

an ego nōn venirem? *was I not to come?* Phil. 2, 3.

tibi nārret! *he tell the story for you!* Ter. Ph. 1001.

āfueris tam diū et cum his dē dignitāte contendās? *have you been away so long, and will you contend with these for honor?* Mur. 21.

772. Such questions are sometimes introduced by *utī* or *ut*, either with or without *-ne*: —

utīne haec ignōrāret suum patrem! *the idea of her not knowing her own father!* Ter. Ph. 874.

tē ut ūlla rēs frangat? *could anything crush you?* Cat. 1, 22.

For the present indicative in deliberative questions see **750**; for the future indicative see **757**.

Optative Subjunctive

773. The subjunctive is used to express a *wish*. The negative is *nē*.

The present (rarely the perfect) refers to future time and denotes that the object of the wish may be attained. The perfect is sometimes used to express the idea that the wish may have been already attained. The imperfect is used regularly of a wish unattained in present time, the pluperfect of a wish unattained in past time; but the imperfect sometimes refers to past time. The present and perfect are often, the imperfect and pluperfect are regularly preceded by *utinam*; when *utinam* is used, the negative is sometimes *nōn* instead of *nē*: —

sint beātī, *may they be happy*; Mil. 93.

utinam illum diem videam, *may I see that day*; Att. 3, 3.

nē istuc Iuppiter sirit, *may Jupiter not allow this*; Liv. 28, 28, 11.

utinam spem implēverim, *I hope I may have come up to his expectations*; Plin. Ep. 1, 10, 3.

utinam Clōdīus viveret, *would that Clodius were alive*; Mil. 103.

utinam ille omnis sēcum cōpiās ēdūxisset, *would that he had led out all his forces with him*; Cat. 2, 4.

utinam tē dī prius perderent, *would that the gods had killed you before*; Pl. Capt. 537.

utinam susceptus nōn essem, *would that I had not been allowed to live*; Att. 11, 9, 8.

774. In early Latin and in poetry *ut* or *ut* (rarely, in imprecations, *quī*) is often used instead of *utinam*: —

ut pereat positum rōbigine tēlum, may the weapon rust away unused;

Hor. S. 2, 1, 43.

quī illum dī omnēs perduint, may all the gods destroy him; Ter. Ph.

123.

775. In poetry a wish is sometimes expressed in the form of a conditional clause introduced by *sī*: as, *ō sī urnam argenti fors quae mihi mōn-stret, O if some chance would show me a pot of silver;* Hor. S. 2, 6, 10.

776. Unfulfilled wishes in present or past time are sometimes introduced by the imperfect subjunctive of *volō* or other verbs of wishing: —

vellem adesset M. Antōnius, I wish Mark Antony were here; Phil. 1, 16.

cuperem vultum vidēre tuum, I wish I could see your face; Att. 4,

17, 4.

nōllem datum, I wish it hadn't been given; Ter. Ph. 796.

Potential Subjunctive

777. The subjunctive is used to represent an action or condition as *possible*. The negative is *nōn*.

The present and perfect regularly denote a present or future possibility, the imperfect a past possibility: —

hoc vōbīs incrēdibile videātur, this may seem to you incredible;

Verr. 3, 109.

nōn facile dixerim, I could not easily say; Tusc. 5, 121.

hoc bellum quis arbitrārētur ūnō annō cōnfici posse? who would have thought that this war could be finished in one year? Manil. 31.

The perfect is sometimes used of past time: as, *haec fuerint nōn neces-sāria, these things may not have been necessary;* Brut. 52.

778. The Potential Subjunctive is often used merely to soften an assertion: —

velim sic existimēs, I should like to have you think so; Fam. 12, 6.

hoc cōfirmāverim, I might make this assertion; Brut. 25.

779. The Potential Subjunctive is used when the verb is in the indefinite second person singular, to express the idea "you (or one) can" or "could":—

saepe videās, you can often see; Hor. S. 1, 4, 86.

perfectum Dēmōsthenem facile dixeris, you might easily call Demosthenes perfect; Brut. 35.

Āfrōs Rōmānam crēderēs aciem, you would have thought the Africans a Roman battle-line; Liv. 22, 46, 3.

780. The indicative is used in certain expressions where the English idiom would suggest the Potential Subjunctive: as, *longum est, it would take a long time; difficile est, it would be difficult.*

For the Potential Subjunctive as the apodosis of a condition of the second type see **915**.

For the Potential Subjunctive in subordinate clauses see **906**.

Tenses of the Subjunctive Mood in Subordinate Clauses

781. The use of the tenses of the subjunctive in independent clauses has been treated in connection with the various types of independent subjunctives. The use of the tenses of the subjunctive in subordinate clauses is determined by the following principle, based upon the tense-groups (see **309**) and known as the Sequence of Tenses:—

Tenses of the subjunctive depending upon a *primary* tense are *primary* (i.e. present or perfect); those depending upon a *secondary* tense are *secondary* (i.e. imperfect or pluperfect). The present and imperfect denote action that is contemporaneous with or subsequent to (i.e. incomplete at the time of) the action of the main verb; the perfect and pluperfect denote action that is past (i.e. completed) at the time of the action of the main verb:—

quid est quod iam amplius expectēs? what is there which you can any longer expect? Cat. 116.

neque abest suspiciō quā ipse sibi mortem cōsciverit, *and suspicion is not lacking that he committed suicide*; B. G. 1, 4, 4.

erit verendum mihi nē quisquam crūdēlius factum esse dicat, *I shall have to fear that some one will say that I have acted too cruelly*; Cat. 1, 5.

dicent quid statuerint, *they will say what they decided on*; Verr. 2, 175.
erant itinera duo quibus itineribus domō exire possent, *there were two roads by which they could leave their homes*; B. G. 1, 6, 1.

quod per finēs Sequanōrum Helvētiōs trādūxisset, quod ā magistrātū Haeduōrum accūsārētur, satis esse causae arbitrābātur quārē in eum animadverteret, *because he had led the Helvetians through the territory of the Sequani and because he was accused by the magistrate of the Haedui (Caesar) thought there was sufficient reason why he should punish him*; B. G. 1, 19, 1.

civitatī persuāsit ut dē finibus suis exirent, *he persuaded the people of the state to leave their territory*; B. G. 1, 2, 1.

Ariovistus tantam arrogantiam sūmpserat ut ferendus nōn vidērētur, *Ariovistus had assumed such arrogance that he seemed unendurable*; B. G. 1, 33, 5.

782. The present perfect, though properly a primary tense, often takes the secondary sequence:—

mihi ut satis esset praesidī prōvisum est, *I have arranged that there should be ample protection*; Cat. 2, 26.

nē ignōrārētis esse aliquās pācis condiciōnēs ad vōs venī, *I have come to you that you may know that there are some chances of peace*; Liv. 21, 13, 2.

783. The sequence of tenses is sometimes disregarded, and the present is followed by the secondary sequence simply because the writer is thinking of past time: as, cūius rei tanta est vīs ut Ithacam sapientissimus vir immortalitātī anteponeret, *so great is the power of this sentiment that the wisest of men preferred Ithaca to immortality*; De Or. 1, 196.

784. On the other hand, if the subordinate verb clearly refers to present time, or to action completed in present time,

the present or perfect may be used, even if it depends upon a secondary verb:—

filius pertimuit nē ea rēs mihi nocēret, cum praesertim adhūc stili poenās dem, *my son was afraid that this thing might injure me, especially since I am still paying the penalty for my writing; Fam. 6, 7, 1.*

ardēbat cupiditāte sic ut in nullō umquam flagrantius studium viderim, *he was so on fire with eagerness that I have never seen more burning ardor in any man; Brut. 302.*

785. In clauses of result (sometimes also in relative, causal, and adversative clauses) depending upon a secondary tense, the perfect may be used instead of the imperfect, though the subordinate verb refers to the same time as the main verb. The fact contained in the subordinate clause is thus emphasized, the tense being treated as independent:—

adeō anceps Mars fuit ut propius periculum fuerint quī vicērunt, *so doubtful was the conflict that those who conquered were in greater danger; Liv. 21, 1, 2.*

fuit mirificā vigilantīa quī suō tōtō cōsulātū somnum nōn viderit, *he was wonderfully wide-awake, for in his whole consulship he did not know what sleep was; Fam. 7, 30, 1.*

cum ab hōrā septimā ad vesperum pugnātum sit, āversum hostem vidēre nēmō potuit, *though they fought from the seventh hour till evening, no one could see an enemy in flight; B. G. 1, 26, 2.*

786. In a clause expressing a *general truth*, if the verb depends upon a secondary tense, it is regularly in the secondary sequence; this is unlike the usual English idiom: as, **ibi, quantam vim ad stimulandōs animōs ira habēret, appāruit,** *here it appeared what power anger had to goad the mind; Liv. 33, 37, 8.*

787. The Historical Present (see **748**) is regarded sometimes as primary, sometimes as secondary, and takes therefore either the primary or the secondary sequence:—

persuādent Rauracis utī unā cum iis proficiscantur, *they persuade the Rauraci to set out together with them; B. G. 1, 5, 4.*

persuādet Casticō ut rēgnum occupāret, *he persuades Casticus to seize the power; B. G. 1, 31, 4.*

788. The Historical Infinitive (see 963) takes regularly the secondary sequence: as, **Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum, quod essent polliciti, flāgitāre**, *Caesar demanded of the Haedui the grain which they had promised*; B. G. I, 16, 1.

789. Subordinate clauses in the form of deliberative questions referring to past time or contrary-to-fact conditions and conclusions, retain their proper form, even if they depend upon a primary tense:—

quaerō ā tē cūr C. Cornēlium nōn dēfenderem, *I ask you why I was not to defend Gajus Cornelius*; Vat. 5.

quod ille sī repudiāset, dubitātis quīn eī vīs esset adlāta? *if he had refused this, do you doubt that violence would have been offered him?* Sest. 62.

But the apodosis of a past contrary-to-fact condition, when used as a subordinate clause, may take the form of the future participle active or passive with **fuerim**; see 924.

790. The imperfect subjunctive in contrary-to-fact conditions and conclusions is treated as a secondary tense and is regularly followed by the secondary sequence: as, **quid mē prohibēret Epicūrēum esse, sī probārem quae dīceret?** *what would prevent me from being an Epicurean, if I accepted what he said?* Fin. I, 27.

791. The perfect subjunctive in potential clauses or in prohibitions is regarded as a primary tense:—

excellentibus ingeniīs citius dēfuerit ars, quā cīvem regant, quam quā hostem superent, *great geniuses would be more likely to lack the skill to control the citizen than the skill to conquer the enemy*; Liv. 2, 43, 10.

nē dubitāris quīn id mihi futūrum sit antiquius, *don't doubt that this course will be preferable in my eyes*; Att. 7, 3, 2.

792. When the perfect subjunctive is itself a subordinate clause and has dependent upon it another subordinate clause, it takes the primary sequence when it represents the present

perfect of the indicative, and the secondary sequence when it represents the historical perfect or the imperfect:—

nēmō ferē vestrum est, quīn, quem ad modum captae sint Syracūsae, audierit, there is hardly one of you but that has heard how Syracuse was captured; Verr. 4, 115.

magna culpa Pelopis quī nōn filium docuerit quātenus esset quidque cūrandum, greatly to blame is Pelops for not teaching his son how far each thing was to receive attention; Tusc. 1, 107.

793. A subjunctive dependent upon an infinitive, participle, gerund, or supine follows the sequence of the finite verb of the sentence; except that a verb dependent upon a perfect infinitive or participle may be in the imperfect or pluperfect, even if the finite verb is in a primary tense:—

satis mihi multa verba fēcisse videor, quārē esset hoc bellum necessārium, I think I have said enough to show why this war is unavoidable; Manil. 27.

versābor in rē saepe quaesitā, suffrāgia clam an palam ferre melius esset, I shall be busy with a question often asked, whether it is better to vote secretly or openly; Legg. 3, 33.

794. The lack of a future and future perfect in the subjunctive is supplied as follows:—

(a) by the use of active periphrastic forms with **sim** or **essem** after primary or secondary tenses respectively.

(b) by the use of the ordinary subjunctive forms, the future idea being represented by the present after primary tenses, the imperfect after secondary tenses, the future perfect idea being represented by the perfect after primary tenses, the pluperfect after secondary tenses.

The first method is employed for active verbs having a future active participle, unless they depend upon a future or future perfect or upon a verb whose meaning suggests futurity (hope, fear, etc.). With a main future or future perfect the periphrastic form is used only if the time of the dependent verb is subsequent to that of the main verb. Under all other circumstances the second method is employed:—

nōn est dubium quā legiōnēs ventūrae nōn sint, there is no doubt that the legions will not come; Fam. 2, 17, 5.

quod mihi prōposueram, cum essem dē bellī genere dictūrus, what I had set before myself when I was going to speak of the character of the war; Manil. 17.

erit tempus cum dēsiderēs, the time will come when you will desire; Mil. 69.

sum sollicitus quidnam dē provinciis dēcernātur, I am anxious to know what is decided about the provinces; Fam. 2, 11, 1.

egestatem suam sē lātūrum putat, si hāc suspiciōne liberātus sit, he thinks that he will bear his poverty, if he is (shall have been) freed from this suspicion; Rosc. Am. 128.

quī pecūniam quam agrum māluisset, eī sē argentō satisfactūrum, if any one preferred money to land, he would satisfy him with cash; Liv. 21, 45, 5.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES IN THE INDICATIVE OR SUBJUNCTIVE

795. All subordinate clauses are developed from independent sentences. At an early stage in the history of language, thought was expressed by means of brief independent sentences. Though one might be subordinate to another in thought, it was independent in form. This coördinate arrangement is called *parataxis*. From this was developed *hypotaxis*, subordination in form. For example, the earlier form of expression would have been *rogō, fiat, I ask, let it be done*; then the second clause came to be regarded as subordinate and was connected with the first by the conjunction *ut*, — *rogō ut fiat, I ask that it be done*.

Relative Clauses

796. Under this head are included all clauses introduced by relative pronouns, relative adjectives, or relative adverbs.

Relative Clauses of Fact

797. The indicative is used in a relative clause which states a fact.

Such clauses may be essential to the meaning of the main clause, or they may be, in all but form, independent, adding a

statement of fact which is not essential to the meaning of the main clause:—

eā legiōne quam sēcum habēbat, with that legion which he had with him; B. G. 1, 8, 1.

sē Caesarī dēdidērunt; in quōs gravius Caesar vindicandum statuit, they surrendered to Caesar; upon them Caesar decided that a more severe penalty should be inflicted; B. G. 3, 16, 3.

tantam dīmiciatiōnem quanta numquam fuit, such a struggle as never was before; Att. 7, 1, 2.

apud eōs quō sē contulit grātiōsus, popular among those to whom he has gone; Verr. 4, 38.

Relative Clauses of Characteristic

798. The subjunctive is used in a relative clause which states a fact as a result of the character of the antecedent.

This is a development of the potential subjunctive. Such clauses are used rarely after a definite antecedent, more often after one that is indefinite or negative or after an interrogative antecedent which implies a negative. They are used also after the demonstratives *is*, *tālis*, *tantus*, and *ēiusmodī*, and after the adjectives *ūnus*, *sōlus*, *dignus*, *indignus*, *aptus*, and *idōneus*:—

secūtae sunt tempestātēs quae nostrōs in castris continērent, storms followed which kept our men in camp; B. G. 4, 34, 4.

sunt quī dicant, there are those who say; Cat. 2, 12.

sī quis est quī mē accūset, if there is any one who accuses me; Cat. 2, 3.

nūlla est nātiō quam pertimēscāmus, there is no nation which we fear; Cat. 2, 11.

quid est quod exspectēs? what is there for you to expect? Cat. 1, 6.

neque is sum quī mortis periculō terrear, I am not one to be frightened by danger of death; B. G. 5, 30, 2.

ūnus est sōlus inventus quī dissidēret, only one man was found who disagreed; Sest. 130.

vidētur quī imperet dignus esse, he seems to be worthy to rule; Legg. 3, 5.

nequēō initium ūllum invenire idōneum, unde exordiar narrāre, I cannot find any suitable beginning with which I may start my story; Ter. Hec. 567.

799. *Dignus, indignus, aptus, and idōneus* sometimes take an infinitive in poetry and late prose; *dignus* and *indignus* sometimes take a clause introduced by *ut* in early and late Latin.

800. Comparatives are sometimes followed by characteristic clauses introduced by *quam*; the relative is sometimes omitted:—

māiōrēs arborēs caedēbant quam quās ferre mīles posset, they cut trees larger than a soldier could carry; Liv. 33, 5, 6.

nōn longius hostēs aberant quam quō tēlum adigī posset, the enemy were not farther distant than a javelin could be thrown; B. G. 2, 21, 3.

Segestānis impōnēbat amplius quam ferre possent, he imposed upon the Segestans more than they could bear; Verr. 4, 76.

801. In classical Latin comparatives are more commonly followed by a clause of result introduced by *ut*: as, *clārrior rēs erat quam ut tegī posset, the thing was too notorious to be concealed; Liv. 26, 51, 11.*

802. After a negative antecedent or an interrogative implying a negative, *quīn* is sometimes used instead of the nominative of the relative pronoun (see **820**):—

nēmō fuit quīn vulnerārētur, there was no one who was not wounded; B. C. 3, 53, 3.

quis est quīn cernat quanta vīs sit in sēnsibus? who is there who does not see how great power there is in the senses? Acad. 2, 20.

803. Relative clauses of a parenthetical nature expressing *restriction* or *proviso* are sometimes treated as clauses of characteristic; such clauses are often introduced by *quī quidem* or *quī modo*:—

orātīōnēs, quās quidem lēgerim, his speeches, at least such as I have read; Brut. 65.

servus est nēmō, quī modo tolerābili condiōne sit servitūtis, there is no slave, provided he is in an endurable state of servitude; Cat. 4, 16.

quod sciam, so far as I know; Ter. Ad. 641.

804. But the indicative is often used in such clauses, especially with *quantum* and when the verb is *sum* or *possum*; always in *quod attinet*: —

erur, quantum audiō, uxōre excidit, my master, according to what I hear, has lost a wife; Ter. And. 423.

prōdidisti et tē et illam, quod quidem in tē fuit, you have betrayed yourself and her, so far as was in your power; Ter. Ad. 692.

quod ad vōs attinet, so far as you are concerned; Liv. 5, 9, 5.

805. Similar to such expressions as *est quī*, *there is one who*, are the expressions *est cum*, *there is a time when*, and *est quod*, *there is reason why*: —

fuit cum arbitrārer, there was a time when I thought; De Or. 1, 1.

fuit tempūs cum Germānōs Gallī virtūte superārent, there was a time when the Gauls surpassed the Germans in courage; B. G. 6, 24, 1.

est quod gaudeās, there is reason for you to rejoice; Pl. Trin. 310.

806. In poetry and early Latin (rarely in classical prose) the indicative is sometimes used in relative clauses following an indefinite and affirmative antecedent: —

sunt quōs pulverem Olympicum collēgisce iuvat, there are those whom it delights to have raised a cloud of Olympic dust; Hor. C. 1, 1, 3.

est ubi (vulgus) peccat, there are times when popular opinion is mistaken; Hor. Epis. 2, 1, 63.

In classical prose the indicative is rare, except when the antecedent is defined by such words as *multī* and *nōnnūlli*.

Causal or Adversative Relative Clauses

807. The subjunctive is used in relative clauses which express a *causal* or *adversative* idea; in causal clauses the relative is sometimes preceded by *ut*, *utpote*, or *quippe*: —

Ō fortunāte adulēscēns, quī tuae virtūtis Homērum praecōnem invēneris, O fortunate youth, since you found Homer as the herald of your valor; Arch. 24.

nec cōsul, ut quī id ipsum quaesisset, moram certāminī fēcit, and the consul, since he had sought this very thing, did not delay the battle; Liv. 42.

Cicerō, quī omnēs superiōrēs diēs militēs in castrīs continuisset, septimō diē quīnque cohortēs frūmentātum mittit, *though on all the days before Cicero had kept the soldiers in camp, on the seventh day he sent five cohorts to get grain*; B. G. 6, 36, 1.

808. The indicative is used often with *quippe* quī, very rarely with *ut* quī and *utpote* quī.

Relative Clauses of Purpose

809. The subjunctive is used in relative clauses which express *purpose*. This is a development of the volitive subjunctive:—

lēgātum mittit, quī eam manum distinendam cūret, he sends his lieutenant to see that this force is kept separated; B. G. 3, 11, 4.
sunt multī quī ēripiunt aliīs quod aliīs largiantur, there are many who take from some in order to give to others; Off. 1, 43.
habēbam quō cōfugerem, I had a place where I might take refuge; Fam. 4, 6, 2.

810. The ablative of the relative pronoun, *quō*, is used as a conjunction to introduce purpose clauses containing an adjective or adverb in the comparative:—

obducuntur cortice truncī, quō sint ā frīgōribus et calōribus tūtiōrēs, the trunks are covered with bark that they may be better protected from cold and heat; N. D. 2, 120.
adiūtā mē, quō id fiat facilius, help me, that this may be more easily accomplished; Ter. Eun. 150.

811. Rarely, a purpose clause which does not contain a comparative is introduced by *quō*: *as, exercitum, quō sibi fidum faceret, liberāliter habuerat, he had treated the army generously, that he might make it loyal to himself*; Sall. Cat. 11, 5.

Other uses of relative clauses are treated under Conditional Sentences, Indirect Discourse, the Iterative Subjunctive, etc.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES INTRODUCED BY CONJUNCTIVE PARTICLES

Clauses of Purpose

812. *Purpose* is most commonly expressed by a clause introduced, if affirmative, by *ut* (earlier form, *utī*), if negative, by *nē* (rarely *ut nē*). The verb is in the subjunctive.

This construction is probably developed from two independent constructions, — the volitive subjunctive and the optative subjunctive: —

Dumnorigi cūstōdēs pōnit, ut quae agat scīre possit, he puts guards over Dumnorix, in order to know what he does; B. G. 1, 20, 6.

ultrā eum castra fēcit eō cōnsiliō, utī commeātū Caesarem interclūderet, he encamped beyond him with this object, to cut Caesar off from his supplies; B. G. 1, 48, 2.

quod ego praetermittō, nē in hāc civitāte tantī facinoris immānitās exstītisse videātur, I pass this by, that the enormity of such a crime may not seem to have existed in this state; Cat. 1, 14.

tē ulciscor, ut nē impūnē in nōs illūseris, I shall punish you, that you may not make sport of us with impunity; Ter. Eun. 941.

813. Occasionally a purpose clause is apparently introduced by *ut nōn*, but it is really an affirmative clause, and the negative applies only to a word or phrase, not to the whole clause: as, *cōfer tē ad Manlium, ut nōn ēiectus ad aliēnōs, sed invitātus ad tuōs isse videārīs, betake yourself to Manlius, that you may seem to have gone, not driven out to strangers but invited to your friends; Cat. 1, 23.*

814. Purpose clauses are often used parenthetically, depending upon a verb of *saying* to be supplied: —

nē longior sim, valē, not to bore you (I say) farewell; Fam. 15, 19, 4.
vērē ut dicam, dē tē futūrum est, to tell the truth, it is going to be about you; Verr. 5, 177.

815. If two purpose clauses are coördinated and the second is negative, the connective is regularly *nēve* or *neu*; sometimes, especially in later writers, *neque*:—

ut vīs minuerētur neu ponti nocērent, that their effectiveness might be lessened, and that they might not injure the bridge; B. G. 4, 17, 10.
ut ea quae statuit praetermittam neque eōs appellem, to pass over the decisions he made and not to call upon those persons; Verr. 3, 115.

816. Independent clauses with *nēdum* (rarely *nē*) may be mentioned in connection with purpose clauses, though their history is uncertain. The verb in these clauses is in the present (rarely the imperfect) subjunctive:—

nec vim tribūniciam sustinēre potuerunt; nēdum hīs temporibus salvī esse possimus, they could not endure the tribunician power; much less in these times can we be safe; Clu. 95.
secundae rēs sapientium animōs fatigant; nē illī victoriae temperārent, prosperity weakens the character even of wise men; much less did they use discretion in their victory; Sall. Cat. 11, 8.

817. *Nēdum* is used sometimes merely to emphasize a word or phrase: as, *erat domicilium hūius urbis aptius hūmānitātī tuae quam tōta Peloponnēsus, nēdum Patrae, a residence in this city was more suited to your refinement than all Peloponnesus, not to speak of Patrae; Fam. 7, 28, 1.*

Other methods of expressing purpose are treated under Relative Clauses (809), the Infinitive (962), the Future Active Participle (999), the Gerund and Gerundive (1007), and the Supine (1015).

Clauses of Result

818. *Result* is regularly expressed by a clause introduced by *ut*, with the verb in the subjunctive. The negative is *nōn*.

This is a development of the potential subjunctive. The main clause often contains an adjective or adverb denoting degree or quality, as, for example, *tantus*, *adeō*, *tālis*, *ita*:—

multa rūmor adfingēbat, ut paene bellum cōfectum vidērētur, rumor started many false reports, so that the war seemed almost finished; B. C. 1, 53, 1.

sunt ita multi, ut eōs carcer capere nōn possit, *they are so many that a prison cannot hold them*; Cat. 2, 22.

neque is es ut tē metus ā periculō revocārit, *you are not of that sort that fear has called you back from danger*; Cat. 1, 22.

819. While negative purpose clauses are introduced by **nē quis, nē quid, nē ūllus**, etc., negative result clauses are introduced by **ut nēmō, ut nihil, ut nūllus**, etc.

820. After negative ideas, either expressed or implied, result clauses are sometimes introduced by **quīn** (see **802**):—

nūllum tempus intermīsērunt quīn trāns Rhēnum lēgātōs mitterent, *they let no time elapse without sending envoys across the Rhine*; B. G. 5, 55, 1.

numquam tam male est Siculīs quīn aliquid facētē dicant, *things never go so badly with the Sicilians that they cannot say something witty*; Verr. 4, 95.

Substantive Clauses

821. Any clause which serves as the subject or object of a verb, as an appositive, or predicate noun is properly a substantive clause; thus, indirect discourse is the object of the verb introducing it, an indirect question is the object of the verb on which it depends. In practice, however, the term is confined to the following clauses when they are used as nouns:—
a. Indicative clauses introduced by **quod**; b. Subjunctive clauses without introductory particle; c. Subjunctive clauses introduced by **ut, nē, quīn, or quōminus**.

Substantive Clauses with the Verb in the Indicative

822. The only common form of substantive clause with the verb in the indicative is that which is introduced by **quod** meaning *that* or *the fact that*:—

accidit perincommodē quod eum nūquam vīdisti, *it happened very unfortunately that you did not see him anywhere*; Att. 1, 17, 2.

Caesar senātūs in eum beneficia commemorāvit, quod rēx appellātus esset, *Caesar called his attention to the favors that the senate had bestowed upon him, the fact that he had been called king*; B. G. 1, 43, 4. Digitized by Microsoft®

hōc ūnō praestāmus vel maximē feris, quod conloquimur inter nōs, in this one thing most of all we are superior to the beasts, in the fact that we talk to one another; De Or. 1, 32.

id, praeterquam quod fieri nōn potuit, nē fingi quidem potest, besides the fact that this could not be done, it cannot even be pretended; Div. 2, 28.

823. A substantive clause with **quod** is sometimes used like an accusative of specification: as, **quod mē Agamemnonem aemulārī putās, falleris, as for the fact that you think I am emulating Agamemnon, you are mistaken; Nep. Epam. 5, 6.**

824. **Cum** is sometimes used in the sense of **quod**, introducing a substantive clause: as, **hoc mē beat, quom perduellīs vīcit, this makes me happy, that he has conquered his enemies; Pl. Am. 642.**

Clauses introduced by **cum** after expressions of *joy, grief, gratitude*, etc., are substantive rather than causal, as appears from the use of the indicative:—

magna laetitia nōbīs est cum tē dī monuēre, we have great joy in the fact that the gods have warned you; Sall. Jug. 102, 5.

grātulor tibi, cum tantum valēs apud Dolābellam, I congratulate you that you have so much influence with Dolabella; Fam. 9, 14, 3.

Substantive Clauses with the Verb in the Subjunctive

825. The subjunctive in substantive clauses, as in all subordinate clauses (see **795**), is developed from one or another of its uses in independent sentences. To which one of the independent uses a certain type of substantive clause should be assigned, is in some cases a matter of disagreement.

Substantive Clauses Developed from the Volitive Subjunctive

Substantive clauses with the verb in the subjunctive are used with the following classes of verbs:—

826. (a) As object clauses with verbs expressing *will or purpose*,—as, *to command, induce, advise, ask, allow, decide, strive, accomplish* (when the idea is one of *purpose* rather than *result*). The connective is **ut** or **nē**:—

suis imperāvit nē quod tēlum rēicerent, he ordered his men not to throw back a single spear; B. C. 1, 46, 2.

quod suādēs, ut ad Quīntum scribam, *as for your advice, that I write to Quintus*; Att. 11, 16, 4.

petō quaesōque ut tuōs mēcum servēs, *I ask and beg you to save your friends together with me*; Fam. 5, 4, 2.

cōstitueram ut manērem, *I had decided to wait*; Att. 16, 10, 1.

ēniti et efficere ut amīci iacentem animum excitet, *to make every effort and see to it that he rouses his friend's prostrate soul*; Lael. 59.

Many of these verbs take also the subjunctive without *ut*, an earlier form of expression, and many take a complementary infinitive; *iubeō*, *order*, and *vetō*, *forbid*, take the accusative and infinitive regularly. Those which contain the idea of *saying* or *thinking* may take the accusative and infinitive.

827. With the passive of these verbs the substantive clause is the subject: as, *sī persuāsum erat Cluviō ut mentirētur*, *if Cluvius had been persuaded to lie*; Rosc. Com. 51. But verbs of *admonishing* have a personal subject and the object clause is retained: as, *admoniti sumus ut cavērēmus*, *we were warned to be careful*; Att. 8, 11 D, 3.

828. (b) As subject clauses with certain impersonal verbs, — as, *licet*, *oportet*, *interest*; with *restat* and *sequitur*, when the dependent clause expresses not a fact, but a thing to be anticipated; also with phrases like *melius est*, *necesse est*, *iūs est*, *lēs est*, *mōs est*, *opus est*; the connective is *ut* or *nē*: —

meā magni interest tē ut videam, *it is of great importance to me to see you*; Att. 11, 22, 2.

illud restiterat, ut tē in iūs ēdūcerent, *that had remained, to bring you into court*; Quinct. 33. (Clause in apposition with subject.)

quis nescit primam esse historiae lēgem, nē quid falsi dicere audeat? *who does not know that it is the first rule of history, that it shall not dare to say anything false?* De Or. 2, 62.

Many of these verbs and expressions take also the subjunctive without *ut* or the infinitive; so, regularly, *licet* and *oportet*.

829. (c) With verbs meaning to *hinder*, *prevent*, *avoid*, *refuse*, — as, *impediō*, *prohibeō*, *caveō*, *vītō*, *recūsō*. The connective is *nē*, *quīn*, or *quōminus*.

quī tū id prohibēre mē potes nē suspicer? *how can you prevent my suspecting this?* Pl. Trin. 87.

neque recūsāre quīn armīs contendant, *nor did they refuse to engage in battle;* B. G. 4, 7, 3.

nec aetās impedit quōminus agrī colendī studia teneāmus, *old age does not prevent our retaining an interest in agriculture;* Cat. M. 60.

830. Substantive clauses are used also with the passive of these verbs: as, *impedior nē plūra dicam, I am prevented from saying more;* Sull. 92.

831. Caveō sometimes takes the infinitive; the imperative often takes the subjunctive without connective. In the sense *to take care that* caveō takes the subjunctive with ut.

832. Of the three connectives, **nē** is used regularly only after an affirmative main clause, **quōminus** after either an affirmative or a negative, **quīn** only after a clause that contains or implies a negative.

833. (d) With expressions of *doubt* or *ignorance* when the main clause contains or implies a negative. Substantive clauses of this type are derived directly from the deliberative subjunctive. They occur after such expressions as **nōn dubitō**, **nōn dubium est**, **quis dubitat**, **quis ignōrat**, etc. The connective is **quīn**: —

nōn dubitat quīn brevī sit Trōiā peritūra, *he does not doubt that Troy will quickly fall;* Cat. M. 31.

nōn esse dubium quīn plūrimū Helvētīi possent, *that there was no doubt that the Helvetians were the most powerful;* B. G. 1, 3, 6.

quis ignōrat quīn tria Graecōrum genera sint? *who does not know that there are three kinds of Greeks?* Flac. 64.

neque abest suspiciō quīn ipse sibi mortem cōnsiverit, *suspicion is not wanting that he committed suicide;* B. G. 1, 4, 4.

834. Nōn dubitō takes also the accusative and infinitive (chiefly in late writers), the indirect question, and, in the meaning *not hesitate*, the infinitive alone.

Substantive Clauses Developed from the Optative Subjunctive

Substantive clauses with the verb in the subjunctive are used as object clauses with the following classes of verbs:—

835. (a) Verbs meaning *to wish*. The connective, when one is used, is **ut** or **nē**, but often there is no connective:—

velim ut tibi amicus sit; **optō** ut beātus sis, *I should like him to be a friend of yours; I want you to be happy*; Att. 10, 16, 1.

vellem mē ad cēnam invitāssēs, *would that you had invited me to dinner*; Fam. 12, 4, 1.

836. When **volō** has the idea of *requesting* or *commanding*, the dependent clause is developed from the volitive subjunctive: as, **volō** ut mihi respondeās, *I want you to answer me*; Vat. 14.

837. With **volō**, **nōlō**, **mālō**, and **cupiō** the accusative and infinitive construction is more common; the accusative is usually omitted when the subject of the infinitive is the same as that of the main verb.

838. (b) Verbs meaning *to fear*. The connectives are **nē**, *that*, introducing an affirmative idea, **ut**, *that not*, introducing a negative idea. Instead of **ut**, **nē nōn** is used regularly after main clauses which contain or imply a negative; rarely otherwise.

In the earlier paratactic form of expression **vereor**, **nē veniat**, for example, meant *I am afraid, may he not come*; then, *I am afraid that he may come*; **vereor**, **ut veniat** meant *I am afraid, may he come*; then, *I am afraid he may not come*.

id pavēs, **nē dūcās** tū illam; tū autem, **ut dūcās**, *you fear this, that you may marry her; you, on the other hand, that you may not marry her*; Ter. And. 349.

timeō **nē** hoc prōpalam fiat, *I am afraid that this may become known*; Pl. Mil. 1348.

vereor ut Dolābella ipse nōbis prōdesse possit, *I am afraid that Dolabella himself may not be able to help us*; Fam. 14, 14, 1.

• **nōn vereor** **nē** nōn scribendō tē expleam, *I do not fear that I may not satisfy you in the matter of writing*; Fam. 2, 1, 1.

839. So also when fear is only *implied*, as in *periculum est*: as, *vīdit periculum esse nē exercitum nēquiquam trādūxisset*, *he saw that there was danger that he had brought his army over to no purpose*; Liv. 21, 33, 9.

840. Verbs of *fearing* may take also the complementary infinitive, the accusative and infinitive, or the indirect question.

Substantive Clauses Developed from Clauses of Result

841. Since these are derived directly from clauses of result, their origin is found in the potential subjunctive, from which the clause of result is derived. Substantive clauses of this type with the verb in the subjunctive are introduced by *ut* and are used as follows:—

842. (a) With verbs meaning *to bring about, accomplish*, when the dependent clause states a fact (see **826**); the clause is used as the object of an active verb, the subject of a passive verb:—

ea fēcī ut essent nōta, *I made those things known (brought it about that they were known)*; Acad. 1, 8.

fieri nōn potest ut eum tū nōn cognōverīs, *it cannot be that you did not know him*; Verr. 2, 190.

quae rēs commeātūs ut portārī possent efficiēbat, *this thing made it possible for provisions to be brought*; B. G. 2, 5, 5.

843. (b) As the subject of certain impersonal verbs, — as, *accidit*, *contingit*, *evenit*; of *est* (*it is a fact that*), *accēdit* (*there is the additional fact that*), *est* with a predicate adjective, e.g. *vērūm*, *falsūm*, *rārūm* (*it is true that, etc.*); of *relinquitur*, *restat*, and *sequitur*, when the dependent clause states a fact:—

accidit ut omnēs Hermae dēicerentur, *it happened that all the Hermae were thrown down*; Nep. Alc. 3, 2.

est ut virō vir lātius ordinet arbusta, *it is a fact that one man plants his vineyards more extensively than another*; Hor. C. 3, 1, 9.

ad senectūtem accēdēbat ut caecus esset, *to old age was added the fact that he was blind*; Cat. M. 16.

vērūm nōn est; sequitur ut falsūm sit, *it is not true; it follows that it is false*; Fat. 38.

844. With *tantum* *abest* two clauses are often used, each introduced by *ut*; of these, one is a substantive clause, subject of *abest*, the other is a clause of result: as, *tantum aberat ut sua signa nōscerent, ut vix ad arma capiēda competeret animus*, so far were they from recognizing their own standards that they hardly had presence of mind to put on their armor; Liv. 22, 5, 3.

845. A substantive clause of this type is often used as subject with *fore* or *futūrum esse*, instead of a future infinitive active or passive; this is a necessary periphrasis when the dependent verb has no future infinitive:—

nōn spērāverat Hannibal fore ut tot populī ad sē dēficerent, Hannibal had not expected that so many peoples would revolt to him; Liv. 28, 44, 4.

clāmābant fore ut ipsī sē dī ulciscerentur, they cried out that the gods would avenge themselves; Verr. 4, 87.

For the same usage in contrary-to-fact conclusions in indirect discourse see 981.

Indirect Questions

846. An Indirect Question is a subordinate clause introduced by an interrogative word,—pronoun, adjective, adverb, or particle. The verb is in the subjunctive.

The particles thus used are *-ne*, *num* (which does not differ in meaning from *-ne*), and *nōnne* (used only after *quaerō*). Indirect Questions are used with verbs meaning *to ask, think, doubt, fear, learn, know, tell*, etc., or with any other word or expression capable of introducing an interrogative idea:—

[*cōnsiderābimus*] *quid fēcerit, quid faciat, quid factūrus sit*, we shall consider what he has done, what he is doing, what he is going to do; Inv. 1, 36.

incertī quō fāta ferant, uncertain where the fates are carrying us; Aen. 3, 7.

vidēs ut altā stet nive candidum Sōracte, you see how Soracte stands white with the deep snow; Hor. C. 1, 9, 1.

Pūblius itūrusne sit et quandō ex Aledīō scīre poteris, whether Publius will go and when, you can find out from Aledius; Att. 12, 24, 1. Digitized by Microsoft®

volō uti mihi respondeās num quis lēgem sit ausus ferre, I want you to tell me whether any one dared to propose the law; Vat. 17.

quaerō ā tē nōnne oppressam rem pūblicam putēs, I ask you whether you do not think the state is burdened; Phil. 12, 15.

For methods of expressing future time in indirect questions see 794.

847. An indirect question ordinarily represents a direct question in the indicative; but it may represent (a) an exclamation or (b) a direct question in the deliberative subjunctive: —

incrēdibile est quam ego ista nōn cūrem, it is incredible how little I care for those things; Att. 13, 23, 3. (representing quam ego ista nōn cūrō!)

quō mē vertam nesciō, I don't know where to turn; Clu. 4. (representing quō mē vertam?)

neque satis cōstābat quid agerent, and it was not very clear what they would better do; B. G. 3, 14, 3. (representing quid agāmus?)

848. Sometimes, especially if the main clause contains or suggests the idea of *trial* or *expectation*, a clause introduced by **sī, if, to see if**, is used instead of an indirect question: —

quaesivit sī cum Rōmānīs militāre liceret, he asked if it was permitted to serve with the Romans; Liv. 40, 49, 6.

hanc sī nostrī trānsirent hostēs expectābant, the enemy were waiting to see if our men would cross this; B. G. 2, 9, 1.

ad Gonnum castra movet, sī potiri oppidō posset, he moved his camp toward Gonnus, to see if he could take the town; Liv. 42, 67, 6.

849. Certain expressions which would naturally introduce indirect questions had lost their original meaning and are used without effect upon the mood of the verb; thus, **nesciō quis** had become an indefinite pronoun, meaning *some one*; **nesciō quō**, **nesciō unde**, etc., had become adverbs: —

bonī nesciō quō modō tardiōrēs sunt, the good are in some way more dilatory; Sest. 100.

mē nesciō quandō vēnisse questus est, he complained that I had come at some time; Phil. 2, 3.

850. Thus, the following phrases are used regularly as adverbs: — **mīrum (mīrē) quam**, *wonderfully*; **mīrum quantum**, *tremendously*; **sānē quam**, *valdē quam*, *exceedingly*; **immāne quantum**, *monstrously*: —

mīrē quam illius loci cōgitatō dēlectat, *the thought of that place pleases me wonderfully*; Att. 1, 11, 3.

Mēdus acinacēs immāne quantum discrepat, *the Persian dagger is monstrously out of place*; Hor. C. 1, 27, 5.

851. The subjunctive is used regularly with *forsitan*, *perhaps*, and the clause is an indirect question, the adverb representing *fors sit an*.

852. In colloquial language and in poetry the word which would naturally be the subject of the indirect question is sometimes taken into the main clause as object, or, rarely, if the main verb is passive, as subject: —

nōstī Marcellum quam tardus sit, *you know Marcellus how slow he is*; Fam. 8, 10, 3.

quidam saepe in parvā pecūniā perspiciuntur quam sint levēs, *in a little matter of money it is often seen how unreliable some people are (some people are seen how unreliable they are)*; Lael. 63.

853. Indirect Alternative Questions are regularly introduced by the same particles as direct alternative questions; see 372-376, 379.

If the second member is a mere negation of the first, **necne** is more common than **an nōn**: as, **quaesīvī ā Catilinā, in nocturnō conventū fuisset necne**, *I asked Catiline whether he had been at the nocturnal meeting or not*; Cat. 2, 13.

854. **Haud sciō** often takes an indirect question introduced by **an**, the first member of the alternative question being suppressed. This form of expression in Ciceronian Latin indicates the writer's belief in the truth of the fact contained in the question: as, **haud sciō an ita sit**, *I am inclined to think it is so*; Tusc. 2, 41.

So, but less commonly, **nesciō, dubitō, incertum**, etc., are used with **an**.

855. The origin of the use of the subjunctive in indirect questions is not determined. It is clearly a late development, as, in early Latin, ideas which in the classical period would be expressed as indirect questions are coördinated with the main verb and are in the indicative: as, **vidē avāritia quid facit**, *see what avarice does*; Ter. Ph. 358. So, sometimes in classical poetry: as, **viden ut geminae stant vertice cristae?** *do you see how the double crests stand upon his head?* Aen. 6, 779.

Temporal Clauses

Temporal Clauses with *cum*

856. In early Latin *cum* (*quom*), meaning *when*, takes the indicative.

In classical Latin *cum*, meaning *when*, takes the indicative if the clause refers to *present* or *future* time: —

Rōmae videor esse cum tuās litterās legō, *I seem to be in Rome when I read a letter from you*; Att. 2, 15, 1.

tum dēnique interficiēre cum nēmō invenīrī poterit, etc., *then at last you will be put to death when no one can be found*, etc.; Cat. 1, 5.

cum ego P. Grānium testem prōdūxerō, refellitō sī poteris, *when I call Publius Granius as witness, refute him if you can*; Verr. 5, 154.

857. In classical Latin, when a temporal clause introduced by *cum* refers to *past* time, a distinction is sometimes made between a clause which merely *defines* the *time* of the main action and one which *states a circumstance* connected with it; in the first case the indicative (historical present, imperfect, perfect, or pluperfect) is used; in the second, the subjunctive (imperfect or pluperfect).

The distinction is that which is made between the relative clause of *fact* and the relative clause of *characteristic*; and the subjunctive with *cum* (which is a relative conjunction) is really a subjunctive of *characteristic*.

The distinction is, however, not regularly observed. The subjunctive is much more common than the indica-

tive in temporal clauses referring to past time and is used even where no idea of characterization is apparent: —

eō cum veniō, praetor quiēscēbat, when I got there, the praetor was resting; Verr. 4, 32.

quem ego cum ex urbe pellēbam, hoc prōvidēbam, while I was driving him from the city, I was anticipating this; Cat. 3, 16.

Gallō nārrāvī, cum proximē Rōmae fui, quid audissem, I told Gallus, when I was last in Rome, what I had heard; Att. 13, 49, 2.

tum cum in Asiā rēs magnās permulti amiserant, at the time when very many had lost great fortunes in Asia; Manil. 19.

cum inambulārem in xystō, ad mē Brūtus vēnit, while I was walking in the portico, Brutus came to me; Brut. 10.

Caesari cum id nūntiātum esset, mātūrat ab urbe proficisci, when this had been reported to Caesar, he hastened to leave the city;

• B. G. 1, 7, 1.

858. Sometimes a clause introduced by **cum** is temporal only in form, and really contains the main idea of the sentence; in this case the indicative is always used and the clause follows the grammatically independent clause: —

iam dilūcēscēbat cum signum cōsul dedit, it was already growing light when the consul gave the signal; Liv. 36, 24, 6.

iamque hoc facere apparābant, cum mātres familiae repentē in pūblicum prōcurrerunt, and they were just getting ready to do this, when the matrons suddenly rushed into the street; B. G. 7, 26, 3.

859. For the same reason the indicative is used in temporal clauses following main clauses which denote a lapse of time: as, *nōndum centum et decem anni sunt cum lāta lēx est, it is not yet a hundred and ten years since the law was passed; Off. 2, 75.*

860. The indicative is used also in temporal clauses which, though they do not contain the main idea of the sentence, are still obviously statements of fact and not time-clauses: as, *caedēbātur virgis in mediō forō, cum intereā nūllus gemitus audiēbātur, he was beaten with rods in the middle of the forum, while meantime not a groan was heard; Verr. 5, 162.*

861. The subjunctive may be used in a temporal clause, even in early Latin, not because the clause is temporal, but for other reasons; for example, because the verb is in the indefinite second person: as, (*infamia*) **etiam tum vivit quom esse crēdās mortuam**, *disgrace still lives even when you think it dead*; Pl. Pers. 356. Or the subjunctive may be due to attraction, or to the iterative meaning of the verb; or it may be potential.

For the use of **cum** meaning *whenever* see **904, 927**.

For the expression **est cum**, *there is a time when*, see **805**.

For the use of **cum primum** see **870, 873**.

Temporal Clauses with **antequam** and **priusquam**

862. **Antequam** and **priusquam** are combinations of an adverb with the relative conjunction **quam**; the adverbial element is often treated as a part of the main clause and is separated from the conjunction by one or more words.

863. **Antequam** and **priusquam** necessarily refer to present time in general statements only; when so used, they take the perfect indicative or the present subjunctive; rarely, the present indicative: —

membris ūtimur priusquam didicimus, etc., *we use our limbs before we have learned*, etc.; Fin. 3, 66.

antequam prōnūntient, vōcem sēnsim excitant, *before they de-claim, they start the vocal organs gradually*; De Or. 1, 251.

ea ante efficit paene quam cōgitat, *he accomplishes these things almost before he thinks*; Div. 1, 120.

864. In clauses referring to future time **antequam** and **priusquam** take the present or future perfect indicative or the present subjunctive; rarely, the future indicative or the perfect subjunctive: —

antequam prō L. Mūrēnā dicere instituō, prō mē ipsō pauca dicam, *before I begin to speak for Lucius Murena, I will say a few words in my own behalf*; Mur. 2.

nunquam conquiescam antequam illōrum ratiōnēs percēperō, *I shall never rest until I understand their methods*; De Or. 3, 145.

antequam veniat, litterās mittet, *before he comes, he will send a letter*; Agr. 2, 53.

priusquam quicquam convivīs dabis, gustātō tūte prius, *before you give anything to the guests, taste first yourself*; Pl. Ps. 885.

antequam sit ea rēs allāta, laetitīā fruī satis est pugnae, *until that news is brought, it is enough to revel in the joy of the battle*; Phil. 14, 1.

865. In clauses referring to past time, **antequam** and **priusquam** take either the indicative or subjunctive; the perfect indicative (very rarely the imperfect or pluperfect) is commonly used to denote a *fact*, regularly if the main clause contains a negative; the imperfect subjunctive (rarely the pluperfect) is used to represent an act as *anticipated* or *forestalled*: —

neque prius fugere dēstitērunt quam ad flūmen pervēnērunt, *and they did not stop running until they reached the river*; B. G. 1, 53, 1.

priusquam ēdūceret in aciem, ōrātiōnem est exōrsus, *before he led (should lead) his men into battle, he began a speech*; Liv. 21, 39, 10.

antequam verbum facerem, dē sellā surrēxit, *before I could utter a word, he rose from his chair*; Verr. 4, 147.

inde ante discessit quam illum vēnisse audissem, *he went away from there before I should hear (should have heard) that he had come*; Att. 14, 20, 2.

866. When the main verb is a historical present, **antequam** and **priusquam** take the present subjunctive, rarely the perfect: —

hunc celeriter, priusquam ab adversāriis sentiātur, commūnit, *he fortifies this quickly, before it is noticed by the enemy*; B. C. 1, 54, 4.

nōn prius ducēs dīmittunt quam ab hīs sit concessum, etc., *they do not let the leaders go until they have agreed, etc.*; B. G. 3, 18, 7.

867. After Cicero's time the subjunctive is used more freely, where there is no idea of anticipation: as, **ducentis annis antequam urbem Rōmā caperent, in Ītaliā Gallī trāscendērunt**, *two hundred years before they took the city of Rome, the Gauls crossed into Italy*, Liv. 5, 33, 5.

868. *Prīdiē quam*, *on the day before*, takes the indicative or, beginning with Livy, the subjunctive; *postrīdiē quam*, *on the day after*, takes the indicative.

869. *Potius quā́m*, *rather than*, takes the subjunctive, sometimes (beginning with Livy) introduced by *ut*; except that, if the main verb is an infinitive, the subordinate verb also may be an infinitive; *ante*, *prius*, and *citius* are sometimes used in the sense of *potius*: —

dēpugnā potius quam serviās, *fight it out rather than be a slave*;

Att. 7, 7, 7.

multī potius quam ut cruciārentur sē in Tiberim praecipitāvērunt,
many rather than be tortured threw themselves into the Tiber;

Liv. 4, 12, 11.

*dēbere eōs Ītalīae tōtīus auctōritātem sequī potius quam ūnīus
hominis voluntātī obtemperāre*, *that they ought to follow the
example of all Italy rather than yield to the will of a single man*;

B. C. 1, 35, 1.

animam omittunt prius quam locō dēmigrent, *they lose their lives
rather than yield their ground*; Pl. Am. 240.

Temporal Clauses with *postquam*, *ubi*, etc.

870. *Postquam* (*postea quam*), *ubi*, *ut*, *simul atque* (*simul ac* or *simul alone*, rarely *simul ut* or *simul et*), and *cum primum* (*quom extemplō* in Plautus) take the indicative, — usually the perfect or the historical present; *postquam* sometimes, *ubi*, *ut*, and *simul atque* rarely, take the imperfect or pluperfect: —

postquam Caesar pervēnit, obsidēs poposcit, *after Caesar arrived,
he demanded hostages*; B. G. 1, 27, 3.

ubi neutri trāseundi initium faciunt, Caesar suōs in castra redūxit,
*when neither side began to cross, Caesar led his troops back into
camp*; B. G. 2, 9, 2.

quī ut perōrāvit surrēxit Clōdīus, *when he finished his speech, Clodius
got up*; Q. Fr. 2, 3, 2.

simul atque intrōductus est, rem cōnfēcīt, *as soon as he was brought
in, he finished the business*; Clu. 40.

nostrī simul in āridō cōstitērunt, in hostēs impetum fēcērunt,
*as soon as our men took position on dry ground, they made an
 attack on the enemy;* B. G. 4, 26, 5.

cum primum Rōmam vēnī, *as soon as I came to Rome;* Att. 4, 1, 1.

ubi lux adventābat, milītēs clāmōrem tollere iubet, *when dawn was
 approaching, he ordered the soldiers to raise the battle-cry;* Sall.
 Jug. 99, 1.

postea quam bis cōsul fuerat, *after he had been twice consul;* Caecil. 69.

871. Following definite expressions of time **postquam** takes the pluperfect more commonly than the perfect. Under these circumstances **post** is sometimes separated from **quam** and is used as a preposition in the main clause; or **post** may be omitted altogether:—

post diem quārtum quam est in Britanniam ventum, *four days after
 they came to Britain;* B. G. 4, 28, 1.

sexto annō quam erat expulsus, *six years after he had been exiled;*
 Nep. Alc. 1, 5.

872. **Ubi** and **simul atque** introduce also clauses referring to *future* time and then take the future or future perfect indicative:—

ubi primum poterit, sē illinc subducet, *as soon as she can, she'll get
 away from there;* Ter. Eun. 628.

simul ut viderō Cūriōnem, *as soon as I see Curio;* Att. 10, 4, 12.

873. **Postquam** is sometimes found with the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive, where it cannot be explained as potential or as due to any of the causes which might lead to the use of the subjunctive in a subordinate clause; such passages are generally regarded as corrupt and are emended. If the subjunctive is allowed to stand, it must be explained as due to the analogy of the subjunctive with **cum**.

Ubi and **cum primum** also are sometimes found with the subjunctive.

Tacitus sometimes uses the historical infinitive with **postquam**.

874. **Postquam** and **ut** sometimes have the meaning *since*, referring to a *period of time*:—

• **postquam nātus sum, satur numquam fui,** *since I was born, I have
 never had enough to eat;* Pl. Stich. 156.

ut illōs dē rē pūblicā librōs ēdidistī, nihil ā tē postea accēpimus,
*since you published those books about the state, we have had nothing
 from you; Brut. 19.*

875. Clauses introduced by any of these particles may combine the idea of *cause* with that of *time*; this is especially true of **postquam** with the imperfect; the present also is sometimes used in this sense: —

postquam liberast, ubi habitat dicere incertē sciō, *now that she's free, I
 haven't enough information to tell you where she lives; Pl. Epid. 504.*
 quae omnia intellegit sibi nihil prōdesse, postea quam testibus
 convincitur, *he knows that all these things are of no use to him,
 now that he is being refuted by witnesses; Verr. 5, 103.*

For the use of these particles with verbs denoting indefinite or repeated action, see 904.

Temporal Clauses with **dum**, **dōnec**, **quoad**, and **quam diū**

876. **Dum**, **quoad**, and **quam diū**, meaning *as long as*, *while*, take the indicative; the tense is usually the same as that of the main verb: —

ut aegrōtō, dum anima est, spēs esse dicitur, sic ego, quoad Pom-
 pēius in Italia fuit, spērāre nōn dēstiti, *as the sick man is said
 to have hope, as long as there is life, so I did not cease to hope, as
 long as Pompey was in Italy; Att. 9, 10, 3.*

quam diū quisquam erit quī tē dēfendere audeat, vivēs, *as long as
 there shall be any one who dares to defend you, you shall live;
 Cat. 1, 6.*

hostēs populi Rōmānī fuimus per nōs, quoad nostra arma nōs
 tūtārī poterant, *we were enemies of the Roman people, relying
 upon ourselves while our arms could protect us; Liv. 23, 42, 2.*

877. In poetry and late prose (beginning with Livy) **dōnec** also is used in this sense: —

dōnec grātus eram tibi, Persārum vīgūī rēge beātior, *while I was
 pleasing in your sight, I was prosperous and more happy than
 the king of the Persians; Hor. C. 3, 9, 1.*

dōnec armātī abībant, peditum labor in persequendō fuit, *while they
 fled with their arms, the foot-soldiers engaged in the pursuit;
 Liv. 6, 13, 4.*

878. *Dum*, meaning *while* (*in the time during which*), regularly takes the present indicative, regardless of the tense of the main verb; rarely the other tenses of the indicative: —

dum haec geruntur, Caesarī nūntiātum est, while these things were going on, word was brought to Caesar; B. G. 1, 46, 1.

quās (artēs) sī, dum est tener, combiberit, if he absorbs these arts while he is young; Fin. 3, 9.

haec dum aguntur, Cleomenēs ad Helōrī litus pervēnerat, while these things were going on, Cleomenes had come to the coast at Helorum; Verr. 5, 91.

quae dīvina rēs dum cōficiēbātur, quaesīvit ā mē, while this sacrifice was being performed, he asked me; Nep. Hann. 2, 4.

dum animōs hostium certāmen āverterat, capitur mūrus, while the battle had distracted the attention of the enemy, the wall was taken; Liv. 32, 24, 5.

879. In poetry and later prose (beginning with Livy) the imperfect subjunctive is sometimes used: —

caneret dum valle sub altā, while he was singing in the deep valley; Tibull. 2, 3, 19.

dum tererent tempus, while they were wasting time; Liv. 2, 47, 5.

880. Clauses with *dum* sometimes denote *cause* as well as *time*: as, *hī dum aedificant, in aes aliēnum incidērunt, while they build* (i.e. by building) *houses, they have got into debt; Cat. 2, 20.*

881. *Dum*, meaning *until*, usually denotes *anticipation* or *purpose* and takes the present or imperfect subjunctive; this is probably a development of the optative use of the subjunctive: —

omne opus contextitur, dum iūsta mūri altitūdō expleātur, the whole structure is put together until the proper height of the wall is reached; B. G. 7, 23, 4.

is dum veniat sedēns ibi opperībere, you shall sit there and wait till he comes; Pl. Bac. 48.

Verginius, dum collēgam cōsuleret, morātus, Verginius having waited till he could consult his colleague; Liv. 4, 21, 10.

882. *Dum, until*, referring to the future, sometimes takes the present, future, or future perfect indicative; and, referring to the past, the perfect indicative, as a statement of fact; but these constructions are rare in classic prose.

883. *Dōnec, until*, is most commonly used with the perfect indicative; in poetry and later prose, it sometimes takes the present subjunctive when the main verb is present or future.

Other tenses of the indicative are sometimes found, especially the future and future perfect, — and occasionally the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive, to denote *anticipation* or *purpose* in past time; in late Latin the imperfect subjunctive is often used in a simple statement of fact: —

usque eō timuī, dōnec ad rēciundōs iūdicēs vēnimus, I was afraid up to the time when we came to reject the jurors; Verr. 1, 17.

secuntur cervōrum simulācra, dōnec redeant ad sē, they follow the forms of stags until they come to themselves; Lucr. 4, 995.

haud dēsīnam dōnec perfēcērō hoc, I'll never rest until I've pushed it through; Ter. Ph. 419.

dūxit longē, dōnec curvāta coīrent inter sē capita, she drew it far back till the curved tips should meet; Aen. 11, 860.

neque proelium omīsīt dōnec caderet, and he did not stop fighting until he fell; Tac. Ann. 3, 20.

884. *Quoad* meaning *until* is comparatively rare; it takes the perfect indicative or the present (rarely the imperfect) subjunctive: —

neque finem sequendī fēcērunt quoad equitēs praecipitēs hostēs ēgērunt, and they did not stop the pursuit till the cavalry drove the enemy headlong; B. G. 5, 17, 3.

ego hīc cōgitō commorārī quoad mē reficiam, I am planning to stay here till I feel better; Fam. 7, 26, 2.

exercēbātur lūctandō quoad stāns complectī posset, he used to practise wrestling till he should be able to get a good grip standing; Nep. Epam. 2, 5.

Temporal Clauses with *quandō*

885. *Quandō* as a temporal conjunction is rare, except in Plautus; it takes the indicative: —

quandō illud quod cupis effēcerō, when I have done what you want;
Pl. Curc. 364.

quandō lēgātōs Tyrum mīsimus, when we sent envoys to Tyre; Agr.
2, 41.

Causal Clauses

886. *Quod, quia, and quoniam, because,* take the indicative; but if the reason is not that of the speaker or writer, the subjunctive is used on the principle of *implied indirect discourse* (see 983): —

ita fit ut adsint propterea quod officium sequuntur, taceant autem idcirco quia periculum vitant, so it happens that they are here because they seek to do their duty, but are silent because they want to avoid danger; Rosc. Am. 1.

quoniam de genere belli dixi, nunc de magnitudine pauca dicam, since I have spoken about the nature of the war, now I will say a little about its importance; Manil. 20.

supplicatio meo nomine decreta est, quod urbem liberassem, a thanksgiving was voted in my name because (as the vote read) I had freed the city; Cat. 3, 15.

mater irata est quia non redierim, mother is angry because I did not return; Pl. Cist. 99.

de suis privatis rebus ab eo petere coeperunt, quoniam civitati consulere non possent, they began to petition him about their private affairs, since they could not take counsel for their state; B. G. 5, 3, 5.

887. A reason sometimes appears in the form of indirect discourse, depending upon a verb of *saying* in the subjunctive, introduced by *quod*: as, *rediit quod se oblitterum nescio quid diceret, he returned because he said he had forgotten something;* Off. 1, 40.

So also with *cum, since*: *ei laneum pallium iniicit, cum id esse aptum ad omne anni tempus diceret, he put on him a woolen cloak, since he said that this was suited to every season of the year;* N. D. 3, 83.

888. *Nōn quod*, *nōn quia*, and *nōn quō* (for *nōn eō quod*) introduce a cause the truth of which is denied; the verb is regularly in the subjunctive (on the principle of *implied indirect discourse*), but may be in the indicative to emphasize the truth of the statement, though it is denied as a cause: —

nōn quia salvōs vellet, sed quia perire causā indictā nōlēbat, not because he wanted to spare them, but because he did not want them to die without pleading their cause; Liv. 38, 33, 11.

nōn quō libenter male audiam, sed quia causam nōn libenter relinqū, not because I am willing to be in bad repute, but because I am unwilling to give up the case; De Or. 2, 305.

889. If a clause of this sort is negated, it may be introduced by *nōn quīn*, instead of *nōn quod nōn*: as, *nōn quīn posset vērū invenīri, sed quia vidēbātur indignum esse, not that the truth could not be discovered, but because it seemed to be an outrage; Mil. 59.*

890. After *magis*, *quam quod* (*quia*, or *quō*) takes the subjunctive: as, *magis quia annum imperium cōsulāre factum est quam quod dēminūtum quicquam sit ex rēgiā potestāte, rather because the consular office was limited to a year than because anything was taken from the regal power; Liv. 2, 1, 7.*

891. *Quandō*, *since*, is comparatively rare; it introduces the reason of the writer or speaker and takes the indicative: as, *quandō virtūs est adfectiō animī, since virtue is a condition of the mind; Tusc. 4, 34.*

892. *Cum*, *since*, takes the subjunctive. This is a natural development of the temporal clause with *cum*: —

Haedui cum sē dēfendere nōn possent, lēgātōs ad Caesarem mittunt, since the Haedui could not protect themselves, they sent envoys to Caesar; B. G. 1, 11, 2 (denoting both time and cause).

quae cum ita sint, since this is so; Cat. 1, 26.

893. When the action of the subordinate verb is treated as identical with that of the main verb, the temporal construction prevails, and *cum*, when referring to present or future time, takes the indicative: as, *cum quiēscunt, probant, when (and since) they say nothing, they approve; Cat. 1, 21.*

For relative causal clauses see 807, 808.

Adversative and Concessive Clauses

894. *Quamquam*, *though*, introduces an adversative statement of fact and takes the indicative: —

quamquam premuntur aere aliēnō, dominātiōnem tamen expectant, *though they are burdened by debt, they nevertheless look forward to supreme power*; Cat. 2, 19.

quamquamst scelestus, nōn committet hodiē umquam iterum ut vāpulet, *though he is a rascal, he will never get himself beaten a second time to-day*; Ter. Ad. 159.

895. In poetry and later prose *quamquam* sometimes takes the subjunctive. This construction is found in Cicero, but is not common before Tacitus.

896. *Quamquam*, *etsī*, and *tametsī* sometimes mean *and yet* and introduce an independent sentence: —

quamquam haec iam tolerābilis vidēbantur, *and yet these things now seemed endurable*; Mil. 76.

tametsī hoc minimē tibi deest, *and yet you don't need this at all*; Fam. 2, 7, 2.

897. Conditional clauses often have an adversative force, especially when introduced by *etsī*, *tametsī*, or *etiam sī*; these compounds may then be treated as adversative conjunctions and translated *though* (instead of *even if*). *Etsī* and *tametsī* in this sense usually introduce adversative statements of fact and take the indicative; *etiam sī* is never necessarily adversative; it introduces conditional clauses either in the indicative or in the subjunctive and *may* always be translated *even if*: —

etsī ab hoste ea dicēbantur, tamen nōn neglegenda existimābant, *though these things were said by the enemy, yet they did not think they should be disregarded*; B. G. 5, 28, 1.

quae tametsī Caesar intellegēbat, tamen quam mīttissimē potest lēgātōs appellat, *though Caesar understood these things, he still addressed the envoys as pleasantly as possible*; B. G. 7, 43, 4.

etiam sī quod scribās nōn habēbis, scribitō tamen, *though you have nothing to write, still write*; Fam. 16, 26, 2.

898. *Quamvis* (literally, *as much as you wish*) and *licet* (literally, *it is permitted*), when used as concessive conjunctions, take the subjunctive.

In both cases the subjunctive is hortatory in origin. Clauses introduced by these conjunctions are properly called *concessive* rather than *adversative* and are like hortatory clauses with a concessive force (see 770). *Quamvis* usually takes the present subjunctive; *licet* takes the present or perfect subjunctive (according to the principle of sequence of tenses): —

senectūs quamvis nō sit gravis, tamen aufert viriditatem, though old age is not a burden, it nevertheless takes away one's vigor; Lael. 11.

licet pericula impendeant omnia, subibō, though all dangers threaten, I will undertake it; Rosc. Am. 31.

licet nō sint cōfirmāti, ā mē tamen ut cōfirmāti observābuntur, though they have not been confirmed, they will nevertheless be regarded by me as if they had been; Plin. Ep. 2, 16, 3.

Quamvis rarely takes the indicative.

899. *Quamvis*, *quamquam*, and *etsi* are sometimes, especially in later Latin, connected with participles, adjectives, and phrases: —

rēs bellō gesserat, quamvis rei publicae calamitōsās, at tamen magnās, he had done things in war which, though disastrous to the state, were still great; Phil. 2, 116.

Volscis quamquam nō publicō cōsiliō capessentibus arma, voluntāriis secūtis militiam, the Volscians, though not taking up arms by decision of the people, following the campaign as volunteers; Liv. 4, 53, 1.

900. *Cum*, *though*, introduces an adversative clause, and takes the subjunctive. This is a natural development of the temporal clause with *cum*: —

cum primī ordinēs concidissent, tamen reliquī resistēbant, though the first ranks had fallen, nevertheless the rest resisted; B. G. 7, 62, 4.
(Both temporal and adversative.)

Catō, quom esset Tusculi nātus, in populī Rōmānī civitātem susceptus est, though Cato was born at Tusculum, he was taken into the citizenship of the Roman people; Legg. 2, 5.

In early Latin (rarely in the classical period) *cum*, *though*, takes the indicative.

901. In correlation with **tum** (meaning usually *both . . . and*) **cum** regularly takes the indicative, but, if the clause has an adversative meaning, it takes the subjunctive: as, **cum tē ā pueritiā dilēxerim, tum hōc tuō factō multō ācrius dilīgō**, *though I have loved you from boyhood, still I love you much more deeply on account of what you have done*; Fam. 15, 9, 1.

902. A concessive idea is sometimes expressed by **ut** with the subjunctive; the origin of this usage is uncertain:—

ut omnia contrā opiniōnem acciderent, tamen sē plūrimum nāvibus posse, *though everything turned out contrary to their expectation, (they knew) that they were very strong in ships*; B. G. 3, 9, 6.

(**exercitus**) **ut nōn referat pedem, insistet certē**, *though the army does not retreat, it will at least stop*; Phil. 12, 8.

903. An adversative idea is sometimes expressed by **ut** with the indicative, the main clause containing the correlative **ita** or **sic**: as, **ut quīēs certāminum erat, ita ab apparātū operum nihil cessātum**, *though there was rest from battle, still they did not stop the construction of the works*; Liv. 21, 8, 1.

For adversative relative clauses see **807**.

Subjunctive of Repeated Action

904. In early Latin and in the first part of the Ciceronian period the indicative was used to denote repeated action. Then the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive began to be used in subordinate clauses referring to past time, and in later Latin are as common as the indicative. The present and perfect subjunctive also are sometimes used, but very rarely unless the verb is in the indefinite second person. Such clauses may be introduced by the relative pronoun or by a conjunction,—especially, **cum** (*whenever*), **sī**, **quotiēns**, **quandō**, **ubi**, or **ut** (some of these often with the indefinite suffix **-cumque**):—

ubi spatium inter mūrōs postulāre viderētur, pīlae interpōnuntur,
wherever the space between the walls seemed to demand it, piers were put in; B. G. 3, 15, 1.

quī ūnum ēius ōrdinis offendisset omnis adversōs habēbat, *whoever had offended one of that order had them all against him*; Liv. 33, 46, 2.
 neque, aliter sī faciat, ūllam inter suōs habet auctōritātem, *and, if he does otherwise, he has no authority over his people*; B. G. 6, 11, 4.
 utcumque locus oppōrtunitātem daret, *whenever the place gave them a chance*; Liv. 21, 35, 2.

Subjunctive by Attraction

905. The subjunctive is often used in subordinate clauses which are closely connected *in thought* with another subjunctive or an infinitive.

The connection must be an essential one, and, even then, the indicative is sometimes used, especially if the writer wishes to emphasize or vouch for the fact contained in the clause:—

quis aut eum diligit quem metuat aut eum ā quō sē metui putet? *who loves a man whom he fears or one by whom he thinks he is feared?* Lael. 53.

mōs est Athēnīs laudāri in cōtiōne eōs quī sint in proeliis interfecti, *it is the custom at Athens for those who have been killed in battle to be eulogized in an assembly of the people*; Or. 151.

nē hostēs, quod tantum multitudīne poterant, suōs circumvenire possent, *lest the enemy, because they were so superior in numbers, should be able to surround his men*; B. G. 2, 8, 4.

Independent Subjunctive Constructions in Subordinate Clauses

906. The potential subjunctive (especially when the verb is in the indefinite second person), the optative subjunctive, and the deliberative subjunctive may be used in subordinate clauses:—

vix erat hoc imperātum cum illum spoliātum vidērēs, *hardly had this order been issued when you might have seen him stripped*; Verr. 4, 86.

ubi cōsulueris, mātūrē factō opus est, *when you have deliberated, you must act quickly*; Sall. Cat. 1, 6.

haec diē nātālī meō scripsī, quō utinam susceptus nōn essem, *I have written this on my birthday, on which day I wish I had not been allowed to live*; Att. 11, 9, 3.

quō mē vertam nesciō, *I don't know which way to turn*; Clu. 4.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

907. A Conditional Sentence consists of two parts,—the Protasis (or *condition*) and the Apodosis (or *conclusion*). The Protasis is regularly a subordinate clause introduced by *sī*, *nisi*, or *sīn*. The Apodosis is regularly a principal clause, but may be subordinated to another clause. The Apodosis is sometimes introduced by a correlative to *sī*,—as, *igitur*, *therefore*, *tum*, *then*, *at*, *at least*, etc.

The Use of the Conditional Particles

908. An affirmative protasis is usually introduced by *sī*, *if*,—originally a locative, then an adverb meaning *in that case* (cf. *sic*, *so*).

A negative protasis is regularly introduced by *nisi*, *unless* (sometimes by *nī*); it is introduced by *sī nōn*, if the negative is to be applied to a single word. A negative protasis is sometimes introduced by *nisi sī*.

909. An affirmative protasis containing an idea opposed to that of a preceding protasis is introduced by *sīn*; if negative, it is introduced by *sī nōn*, or, especially if the predicate is omitted, by *sī* (or *sīn*) *minus* or *aliter*:—

sī domī sum, foris est animus; sīn foris sum, animus domī est, if I am at home, my mind is out; but if I am out, my mind is at home; Pl. Merc. 589.

sī fēceris id, habēbō grātiām; sī nōn fēceris, ignōscam, if you do it, I shall be grateful; if you do not do it, I will forgive you; Fam. 5, 19, 2.

ēdūc tēcum omnēs tuōs; sī minus, quam plūrimōs, take out with you all your companions; if not all, as many as you can; Cat. 1, 10.

910. *Sive*, or *if*, is used after a preceding *sī* chiefly in early Latin. It is more commonly used as a correlative, *sive . . . sive* (or *seu . . . seu*) introducing alternative conditional clauses or sentences: as, *sive timuit, quid ignāvius? sive meliorem*

suam causam fore putāvit, quid iniūstius? *if he was afraid, what more cowardly? if he thought his cause would be stronger, what more unjust?* Att. 8, 9, 3.

Types of Conditional Sentences

There are three types of conditional sentences, as follows:—

First Type — Conditions of Fact

911. The condition is treated as an *assumption of fact* in *present, past, or future* time. The indicative is regularly used in both protasis and apodosis; any tense may be used; the tenses of protasis and apodosis may be the same or different:—

parvī sunt forīs arma, nisi est cōsiliū domī, *arms are of small use abroad, unless there is wisdom at home; Off. 1, 76.*

sī honōris causā statuam dedērunt, inimicī nōn sunt, *if they gave the statue as a compliment, they are not enemies; Verr. 2, 150.*

sī accelerāre volent, cōsequentur, *if they are willing to hurry, they will overtake him; Cat. 2, 6.*

sī quicquam caelāti adspexerat, manūs abstinēre nōn poterat, *if he had got his eyes on anything embossed, he couldn't keep his hands off it; Verr. 4, 48.*

912. A protasis of this type may denote a single act, a repeated act, or a general truth. If it denotes a repeated act, the verb, if it refers to past time, may be in the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive (see 904). If it denotes a general truth, the verb is regularly in the present or perfect subjunctive, if the indefinite second person is used; rarely, otherwise:—

sī quis prehenderētur, cōsensū militum ēripiēbātur, *if any one was caught, he was rescued by the unanimous action of the soldiers; B. C. 3, 110, 4.*

nec habēre virtutē satis est nisi ūtāre, *and to have virtue is not enough unless you use it; Rep. 1, 2.*

turpis excūsatiō est, sī quis contrā rem publicā sē amīcī causā fēcisse fateātur, *it is a disgraceful excuse if any one confesses that for a friend's sake he has acted against the state; Lael. 40.*

913. A protasis referring to the future may have the verb in the present indicative: as, *sī vincimus, omnia nōbīs tūta erunt*, *if we conquer, everything will be safe for us*; Sall. Cat. 58, 9.

For the use of the perfect indicative in the apodosis see **759**.

914. The apodosis of a conditional sentence of the first type may be an imperative, a hortatory subjunctive, or any other form of the verb demanded by the sense or the context:—

sī haec ita sunt, sic mē colitōte ut deum, *if this is so, you are to honor me as a god*; Cat. M. 81.

quod sī nōn possumus facere, moriāmur, *if we cannot do it, let us die*; Phil. 7, 14.

sī meis incommodis laetābantur, urbis tamen periculō commoverentur, *if they rejoiced at my misfortunes, they might at least have been disturbed by the danger of the city*; Sest. 54. (Potential Subjunctive.)

Second Type — Conditions of Possibility

915. The condition is treated as a *possibility* in future time. The present or perfect subjunctive is regularly used in both protasis and apodosis.

The subjunctive of the protasis is a development of the hortatory subjunctive; the subjunctive of the apodosis is the potential subjunctive:—

sī deus tē interroget, quid respondeās? *if a god should ask you, what would you answer?* Acad. 2, 80.

sī ā corōnā relictus sim, nōn queam dicere, *if I should be deserted by the crowd, I could not speak*; Brut. 192.

sī mē suspendam, meis inimicis voluptātem creāverim, *if I should hang myself, I should delight my enemies*; Pl. Cas. 403.

916. The future indicative is sometimes used in the apodosis, to emphasize the certainty of the result: as, *sī frāctus inlābātur orbis, impavidum ferient ruinae*, *if the sky should break and fall, the ruins will strike him fearless*; Hor. C. 3, 3, 7.

917. The apodosis of a future condition, whether of the first type or of the second, may be in any form which expresses or

implies futurity, — as, the periphrastic conjugations, the imperative, the present indicative of verbs denoting *wish*, *possibility*, *necessity*, etc.: —

quid, si hostēs ad urbem veniant, factūrī estis? *what are you going to do if the enemy should march on the city?* Liv. 3, 52, 7.

vir tuos si veniet, iubē domī opperīrīer, *if your husband comes, tell him to wait at home;* Pl. Cist. 426.

intrāre, si possim, castra hostium volō, *I want to enter the enemy's camp, if I can;* Liv. 2, 12, 5.

nōn possum istum accūsāre, si cupiam, *I cannot accuse him, if I should wish to;* Verr. 4, 87.

918. If a future condition is regarded from a point of view in the *past*, the verb of the protasis is in the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive; the same mood and tense may be used in the apodosis, or it may have a past tense of the indicative of the periphrastic conjugation: —

at tum si dicerem, nōn audīrē, *but at that time (it was clear that) if I should speak, I should not be heard;* Clu. 80.

si omnia quae postulārēs facere voluisset, quid agerēs? *if he should be (have been) willing to do everything that you required, what were you to do?* Quinct. 83.

quōs ego, si tribūnī mē triumphāre prohibērent, testēs citātūrī fuī, *I intended to summon them as witnesses, if the tribunes should oppose my triumph;* Liv. 38, 47, 4.

Third Type — Conditions Contrary to Fact

919. The condition is treated as *contrary to fact* in *present* or *past* time. The subjunctive is used in both protasis and apodosis, the imperfect referring to present time (very rarely to past), the pluperfect to past time.

The use of the subjunctive in conditional sentences of this type probably originated in the past-future use (see **918**): —

si intus esset, ēvocārem, *if he were in, I should call him out;* Pl. Ps. 640.

nisi tū amīssissēs, numquam recēpīsem, *unless you had lost it, I should never have recovered it;* Cat. M. 11.

neque diūtius Numidae resistere quivissent, nī peditēs magnam clādem facerent, *and the Numidians would not have been able to hold out any longer, unless the infantry had caused great slaughter; Sall. Jug. 59, 3. (facerent refers to past time.)*

920. Either the protasis or the apodosis may refer to present time, while the other refers to past time:—

sī mentis esset suae, ausus esset ēdūcere exercitum? *if he were of sound mind, would he have dared to lead out the army? Pison. 50.*

nisi ante Rōmā profectus essēs, nunc eam certē relinquerēs, *if you had not departed from Rome before, you would certainly leave it now; Fam. 7, 11, 1.*

921. The imperfect or perfect *indicative* is used regularly in the apodosis if the verb denotes *possibility* or *duty*, or if it is a form of *sum* with the gerundive or a predicate adjective (e.g. *satis est, optābilius est, longum est*):—

cōsul esse quī potuī, nisi eum vitāe cursum tenuissem? *how could I have been consul, unless I had followed this course of life? Rep. 1, 10.*

sī Pompēius privātus esset, tamen is erat mittendus, *if Pompey were a private citizen, he still ought to be sent; Manil. 50.*

sī ita putāset, optābilius Milōnī fuit, *if he had thought so, it would have been preferable for Milo; Mil. 31.*

922. The imperfect, perfect, or pluperfect *indicative* of any verb may be used in the apodosis to denote an action *just about to happen* or *actually in progress* when interrupted by the action of the protasis; the protasis under these circumstances usually contains or implies a negative:—

iam tūta tenēbam, nī gēns crūdēlis ferrō invāsisset, *I was just reaching a safe place (and would have reached it), had not the fierce people attacked me; Aen. 6, 358.*

pōns iter paene hostibus dedit, nī ūnus vir fuisset, *Horātius Cocles, the bridge almost gave a path to the enemy, had it not been for one man, Horatius Cocles; Liv. 2, 10, 2.*

praeclārē vicerāmus, nisi Lepidus recēpisset Antōnium, *we had won a famous victory, if Lepidus had not taken Antony under his protection; Fam. 12, 10, 3.*

923. Past tenses of the indicative of the active periphrastic conjugation are sometimes used in the apodosis. In such sentences it is often difficult to determine whether the idea is past-future (see 918) or contrary to fact: —

quibus, si Rōmae esset, contentus futūrus erat, with which, if he were in Rome, he would be satisfied; Att. 12, 32, 3.

relictūri agrōs erant, nisi ad eōs Metellus litterās mīsisset, they would have abandoned their fields, if Metellus had not sent them a letter; Verr. 3, 121.

924. If the apodosis is itself a subordinate clause, the imperfect subjunctive remains unchanged, regardless of the tense on which it depends; instead of the pluperfect, the perfect subjunctive of the periphrastic conjugation is regularly used after a primary tense and sometimes after a secondary tense (see 785):—

si tum P. Sēstius animam ēdidisset, nōn dubitō quā aliquandō statua huic statuerētur, if Publius Sestius had given up the ghost then, I do not doubt that at some time a statue would be set up in his honor; Sest. 83.

dīc quidnam factūrus fueris, si eō tempore cēnsor fuissēs, tell me what you would have done if you had been censor at that time; Liv. 9, 33, 7.

ea rēs tantum tumultum praebuit ut, nisi castra Pūnica extrā urbem fuissent, effūsūra sē omnis multitudō fuerit, this thing caused such a panic that, if the Punic camp had not been outside the city, the whole population would have poured out; Liv. 26, 10, 7.

925. In early Latin and in classical poetry the present and perfect subjunctive are sometimes used in contrary-to-fact conditions: —

si sit domi, dicam tibi, if he were at home, I would tell you; Pl. Asin. 393.
dēliciās tuās, nī sint inēlegantēs, vellēs dicere, you would want to talk of your pleasures, if they were not unseemly; Catull. 6, 1.

Other Forms of Protasis

926. The protasis of any type of conditional sentence may be expressed by a single word, a phrase, or by a clause not in the regular form of a protasis: —

quālem (orātiōnem) numquam Catilīna victor habuisset, such a speech as Catiline would never have made, if successful; Sest. 28.

nihil posse evenire nisi causā antecēdente, *that nothing can happen unless a cause precedes*; Fat. 34.

nēmō umquam sine magnā spē immortalitātis sē prō patriā offerret ad mortem, *no one would ever expose himself to death for his country without great hope of immortality*; Tusc. 1, 32.

filiam quis habet, pecūniā est opus, *a man has a daughter, he needs money*; Par. 44.

tolle hanc opiniōnem, lūctum sustuleris, *destroy this idea and you will have put an end to grief*; Tusc. 1, 30.

darēs hanc vim M. Crassō, in forō saltāret, *had you given this power to Marcus Crassus, he would have danced in the forum*; Off. 3, 75. (darēs is potential subjunctive.)

absque eō esset, rēctē ego mihi vidissem, *were it not for him, I should have looked out for myself all right*; Ter. Ph. 188.

Conditional Relative Sentences

927. Clauses introduced by relative words are often equivalent to protases and may have any of the forms found in conditional sentences:—

haec quī videat, nōne cōgātur cōfiteri deōs esse? *the man who should see this would be compelled, wouldn't he, to admit that there are gods*? N. D. 2, 12.

quaecumque vōs causa hūc attulisset, laetārer, *whatever cause had brought you here, I should rejoice*; De Or. 2, 15.

cum rosam viderat, incipere vēr arbitrābātur, *whenever he saw a rose, he thought it was the beginning of spring*; Verr. 5, 27.

Conditional Clauses of Comparison

928. These are introduced by **quasi** (rarely **quam sī**) **tamquam sī**, **ut sī**, **velut sī**, **ac sī** (in late Latin), or **ceu** (chiefly in poetry); sometimes by **tamquam** or **velut** (without **sī**). All mean *as if*. The subjunctive is used (probably volitive in origin), and the tense is usually determined by the sequence of tenses; sometimes, however, the imperfect or pluperfect is used after a primary tense, to mark the action as contrary to fact. The apodosis is implied in the introductory word (**quam**, **ut**, etc.):—

hic est obstandum, velut si ante Rōmāna moenia pugnēmus, here we must make a stand as if we were fighting before the walls of Rome; Liv. 21, 41, 15.

ita hōs (honōrēs) petunt, quasi honestē vixerint, they seek these honors just as if they had lived honorably; Sall. Jug. 85, 19.

tamquam dē rēgnō dimicārētur, ita concurrerunt, they rushed together as if they were fighting for a kingdom; Liv. 40, 6, 6.

dēlēta Ausonum gēns, perinde ac si internecivō bellō certāset, the Ausonian race was destroyed, just as if it had fought in an internecine war; Liv. 9, 25, 9.

ēius negōtium sic velim suscipiās, ut si esset rēs mea, I should like you to undertake his business, just as if it were my own affair; Fam. 2, 14.

Clauses of Proviso

929. The present and imperfect subjunctive are used in Clauses of Proviso introduced by **dum**, **dum modo**, or **modo**, *provided, if only*. The negative is **nē**, sometimes (in later Latin) **nōn**.

This is a development of the volitive subjunctive. The clause may express a *wish* entertained either by the subject of the main verb or by the writer or speaker; or it may be merely *conditional*:—

omnia postposui, dum modo praeceptis patris pārērem, I held everything else secondary, in my desire to obey my father's precepts; Fam. 16, 21, 6.

honestā neglegunt, dum modo potentiam cōsequentur, they neglect honor, if only they may obtain power; Off. 3, 82.

dum rēs maneant, verba fingant arbitrātū suū, provided the facts remain, let them make up words as they please; Fin. 5, 89.

modo nē sit ex pecudum genere, provided he is not of the herd of cattle; Off. 1, 105.

930. Clauses of Proviso are sometimes introduced by **ut** or **nē**: as, *ita probanda est clementia, ut adhibeatur rei publicae causā severitas, mercy is a thing to be commended, if only strictness is observed in the interests of the state; Off. 1, 88.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD

931. The Imperative is used to express a command or request.

The present calls for the immediate performance of the act. The future is used, as a rule, only when it is clear that the act is not to be performed immediately, — as, for example, when it forms the apodosis of a conditional sentence referring to the future; it is used also to express a permanent command, — in rules, laws, etc.: —

proficiscere; educ tecum omnēs tuos, depart; take out with you all your companions; Cat. 1, 10.

ēs, bibe, animō obsequere, eat, drink, and be merry; Pl. Mil. 677.

cum valētudinī cōsulueris, tum cōsulitō nāvigātiōnī, when you have attended to your health, then make arrangements for the voyage; Fam. 16, 4, 3.

si iste ibit, itō, if he goes, you go; Pl. Ps. 863.

mōribus vivitō antīquīs, live in the old-fashioned ways; Pl. Trin. 295.

932. The *third person* of the future imperative is used chiefly in legal statements: as, *rēgiō imperiō duo suntō, there shall be two of regal power; Legg. 3, 8.*

933. The future imperative of *sciō* is used regularly, and that of *habeō* usually, instead of the present.

For *quīn* with the imperative see **744**.

For the use of the imperative in the protasis of conditional sentences see **926**.

Negative Commands

934. Negative Commands are regularly expressed by *nōlī* or *nōlīte* with the infinitive, by *cavē* or *cavēte* with the present subjunctive (see **831**), and by the perfect subjunctive with *nē* (see **768**): —

nōlī putāre quemquam plēniōrem ad dīcendum fuisse, do not think that any one was more fluent of speech; Brut. 125.

cavē existimēs mē abiēcisse cūram rei pūblicae, do not think that I have lost interest in the state; Fam. 9, 24, 4.

nē sis admirātus, do not be surprised; Fam. 7, 18, 3.

935. The present imperative with *nē* is used in early Latin and in poetry; the future imperative with *nē* is used in rules, laws, etc.: —

nē saevi, *be not angry*; Ter. And. 868.

equō nē crēdite, *trust not the horse*; Aen. 2, 48.

[Boreā] *fiante*, *nē arātō, aēmen nē iacitō*, *when the north wind blows, do not plow, do not sow your seed*; Plin. H. N. 18, 334.

936. Other forms of expression are *cavē nē*, *cūrā nē*, *fac nē*, or *vidē nē* with the subjunctive.

The poets sometimes use the present subjunctive with *nē*; and they sometimes use, instead of *nōlī*, other words of similar meaning, — e.g. *fuge*, *mitte*, *parce*.

937. Two commands, of which the second is negative (whether imperative or subjunctive) are regularly connected by *nēve*: —

hominem mortuom in urbe nē sepelītō nēve ūritō, *neither bury nor burn a dead man in the town*; Legg. 2, 58.

frūctūs ferōs mollīte colendō, neu sēgnēs iaceant terrāe, *make the wild fruits edible by cultivation, and let not the lands lie idle*; Georg. 2, 36.

THE INFINITIVE

938. The Infinitive is a verbal noun and has characteristics of both noun and verb. Like a noun it may be used in certain case-constructions and it is sometimes qualified by a neuter adjective or demonstrative; like a verb it has distinctions of voice and tense, it governs the same case as its verb, and it is qualified by adverbs.

The Use of the Tenses of the Infinitive

939. The tenses of the infinitive regularly denote time which is relative to that of the verb upon which the infinitive depends. The present tense denotes action in progress, the perfect tense action completed, the future tense action still to be performed at the time of the action of the main verb.

940. With some verbs which look forward to the future (for example, verbs meaning to *wish* or *plan*), the present infinitive refers to future time:—

scīre studeō quid ēgerīs, I am anxious to know what you have been doing; Att. 13, 20, 3.

cōgitō in hortīs Crassipedis cēnāre, I am planning to dine in the gardens of Crassipes; Att. 4, 12.

941. The present infinitive is sometimes used instead of the future with verbs meaning to *hope*, *promise*, or *threaten*; also with verbs of *saying* when they contain the idea of *promising*:—

tōtius Galliae sēsē potīrī posse spērant, they hope to be able to get control of all Gaul; B. G. 1, 3, 7.

sī operam dare prōmittitis, if you promise to attend; Pl. Trin. 5.

illī sē, quae imperārentur, facere dixerunt, they said that they would do what was ordered; B. G. 2, 32, 3.

942. With verbs of *remembering* the present infinitive is sometimes used of a completed act: as, *meministis fierī senātūs cōsultum, you remember that a decree of the senate was passed; Mur. 51.*

943. In indirect discourse (see **964**) the perfect infinitive represents any past tense of the indicative.

944. The perfect infinitive is sometimes used instead of the present to emphasize the completion of the act:—

bellum quod possumus ante hiemem perfēcisse, a war which we can finish before winter; Liv. 37, 19, 5.

tendentēs Pēlion imposuisse Olympō, striving to put Pelion on Olympus, Hor. C. 3, 4, 51.

For the same reason the perfect passive infinitive, usually without *esse*, is often used with *volō* (rarely with *cupīō* and *nōlō*): as, *monitōs etiam atque etiam volō, I want them warned again and again; Cat. 2, 27*; also with *oportet*, *decet*, and similar verbs: as, *quod iam pridem factum esse oportuit, which ought to have been done long ago; Cat. 1, 5.*

In poetry the use of the perfect infinitive where the present would seem more natural is, no doubt, sometimes due to metrical reasons.

945. The future infinitive is used only in indirect discourse with verbs of *saying, thinking, perceiving*, etc., and with verbs of similar meaning,—for example, verbs meaning to *hope, promise, threaten*, etc.

946. Instead of the future infinitive, the periphrastic form *futūrum esse* or *fore* may be used, with *ut* and the subjunctive, either active or passive; this circumlocution is necessary when the verb has no future participle or supine:—

magnum in spem veniebat fore uti pertinaciam desisteret, he was becoming very hopeful that he would give up his obstinacy; B. G. 1, 42, 3.

quam ex re futūrum uti totius Galliae animi a se averterentur, the result of this thing would be that the loyalty of all Gaul would be turned away from him; B. G. 1, 20, 4.

947. The perfect passive participle with *fore* is sometimes used to denote completed action in future time: *as, debellatum mox fore rebantur, they thought that the war would soon be (have been) finished; Liv. 23, 13, 6.*

The Uses of the Infinitive

Infinitive as Nominative Case

948. The infinitive is used as subject with *est* and a predicate adjective; with *est* and an abstract predicate noun,—for example, *fās est, mōs est, opus est, tempus est*; with *est* and a predicate possessive genitive; and with many impersonal verbs,—for example, *decet, expedit, iuvat, licet, oportet, placet, praestat, pudet*. When used in this way, the infinitive may have a subject accusative and may take a predicate noun or adjective in the accusative:—

longum est ea dicere, it would take a long time to tell this; Sest. 12.

neque erat facile nostris uno tempore propugnare et munire, and it was not easy for our men to fight and build fortifications at the same time; B. C. 3, 45, 3.

cum vivere ipsum turpe sit, when mere living is disgraceful; Att. 13, 28, 2.

sī eōs hōc nōmine appellārī fās est, if it is right for them to be called by this name; Mur. 80.

erat āmentis pācem cōgitāre, it was a madman's act to think of peace; Lig. 28.

ōrātōrem irāscī minimē decet, it is quite unbecoming for an orator to lose his temper; Tusc. 4, 55.

nōn esse cupidum pecūnia est, not to be covetous is wealth; Par. 51.

Many verbs or expressions of this sort may take a substantive clause; see 828.

949. The infinitive is sometimes used as the subject of other verbs:-

nōn cadit invidēre in sapientem, envy does not come to a wise man; Tusc. 3, 21.

quōs omnīs eadem cupere, eadem ōdisse, eadem metuere in ūnum coēgit, the fact that they desired the same things, hated the same things, feared the same things, brought them all together; Sall. Jug. 31, 14.

950. The infinitive is used also as a nominative in apposition and as a predicate nominative:—

proinde quasi iniūriam facere id dēmum esset imperiō ūtī, just as if that only, to do injustice, were to make use of power; Sall. Cat. 12, 5.

vīvere est cōgitāre, to live is to think; Tusc. 5, 111.

Infinitive as Accusative Case

951. The infinitive *without subject accusative* is used with many verbs to denote another act of the same subject.

This is called the Complementary Infinitive because it completes a thought which is only introduced by the finite verb. With most verbs the infinitive is a direct object; with those which are intransitive it is used like an accusative of specification. The verbs (or verbal phrases) which take an infinitive of this type are especially those meaning *wish, decide, intend, prepare, strive, hasten, begin, continue, cease, dare, fear, neglect,*

learn, remember, forget, ought, seem, be able, be accustomed. A predicate noun or adjective is in the same case as the subject of the main verb, — that is, usually the nominative: —

bellum cum Germānis gerere cōstituit, he decided to wage war with the Germans; B. G. 4, 6, 5.

cum primum pābuli cōpia esse inciperet, as soon as there began to be a supply of fodder; B. G. 2, 2, 2.

nōbiscum versārī iam diūtius nōn potes, you cannot live with us any longer; Cat. 1, 10.

fiērī studēbam doctior, I was eager to become more wise; Lael. 1.

Some of these verbs may take a substantive clause instead of the infinitive; see 826, 835.

952. An infinitive of this type may take a subject accusative even when it refers to the same person as the subject of the main verb, — but rarely, unless the infinitive is *esse, vidērī, putārī, or dīcī*: —

cupiō mē esse clēmentem, I want to be merciful; Cat. 1, 4.

grātum sē vidērī studet, he is eager to seem grateful; Off. 2, 70.

953. As an abstract noun the infinitive may be used as the object of a verb, or in apposition with the object, or as an accusative case with a preposition: —

hic verērī perdidit, he has lost his sense of shame; Pl. Bac. 158.

ut tōtum hoc beātē vīvere in ūnā virtūte pōneret, that he should base this whole matter of a happy life on virtue alone; Tusc. 5, 33.

tū dās epulis accumbere dīvum, you give me the privilege of reclining at the feasts of the gods; Aen. 1, 79.

miserērī, invidēre, gestīre, laetārī, haec omnia morbōs Graeci appellant, pity, envy, longing, joy, all these things the Greeks call diseases; Tusc. 3, 7.

nūl praeter plōrāre, nothing except weeping; Hor. S. 2, 5, 69.

The infinitive *with subject accusative* is used with the following verbs: —

954. (1) Verbs meaning *say, think, know, perceive*. This is the construction of principal clauses in indirect discourse; see 965. *Digitized by Microsoft®*

The subject accusative is sometimes omitted, but rarely unless it would be *mē, nōs, tē, vōs, or sē*. When the subject is omitted, a predicate noun or adjective is sometimes in the nominative, but chiefly in poetry:—

stultē fēcisse fateor, I admit that I have acted foolishly; Pl. Bac. 1013.

oblītum crēdidī, I thought he had forgotten; Fam. 9, 2, 1.

ait fuisse nāvium celerrimus, it says it was the swiftest of boats,
Catull. 4, 2:

uxor invicti Iovis esse nescis, you forget that you are the wife of
unconquerable Jove; Hor. C. 3, 27, 73.

955. (2) Verbs denoting *emotion*, — for example, *joy, grief, indignation, complaint, pride, wonder*; these are verbs of *thinking* or *saying*, and the dependent construction may properly be regarded as indirect discourse:—

salvum tē advēnisse gaudeō, I am glad that you have arrived in safety;
Ter. Ph. 286.

nē querantur sē esse relictās, lest they complain that they have been
deserted; Tusc. 5, 14.

956. (3) Verbs meaning *order, compel, forbid, permit, or teach*:—

tertiam aciem castra mūnīre iussit, he ordered the men of the third
line to fortify the camp; B. G. 1, 49, 2.

hunc patiēmur fieri miserum? are we going to let him become unhappy?
Ter. Ph. 536.

Some verbs of these meanings may take a substantive clause; see 826.

957. (4) Verbs of *wishing*, when the subject of the infinitive is different from that of the verb upon which it depends:—

hoc tē scīre voluī, I wished you to know this; Att. 7, 18, 4.

eās rēs iactārī nōlēbat, he did not wish these things discussed; B. G. 1,
18, 1. Digitized by Microsoft®

Infinitive with Passive Verbs

958. Many verbs which in the active voice take the infinitive with subject accusative are used also in the passive voice with a dependent infinitive.

Verbs of *saying, thinking*, etc., are used either personally or impersonally in the present system and, as a rule, impersonally in the perfect system and in the periphrastic conjugation:—

centum pāgōs habēre dicuntur, they are said to have a hundred cantons; B. G. 4, 1, 4.

dicitur eō tempore mātrem Pausaniae vixisse, it is said that the mother of Pausanias lived at that time; Nep. Paus. 5, 3.

trāditum est Homērum caecum fuisse, there is a tradition that Homer was blind; Tusc. 5, 114.

dicendum est nūllam esse rem publicam, it must be said that there is no state; Rep. 3, 43.

959. *Videor, seem*, is used, as a rule, personally in all forms; *crēdō, believe*, impersonally; other verbs impersonally if they have a dependent dative: as, *Caesari nūtiātur Sulmōnēnsēs cupere ea facere quae vellet, it is announced to Caesar that the people of Sulmo are eager to do what he wishes*; B. C. 1, 18, 1.

Infinitive with Adjectives

960. In poetry beginning with the Augustan period (rarely in earlier poetry) and in post-Augustan prose the infinitive is used with many adjectives, especially those which denote *wish, ability, fitness* (or the reverse) to do something.

This use is like that of the complementary infinitive with verbs or the supine in *-ū* with adjectives:—

avidī committere pugnam, eager to begin the fight; Ov. Met. 5, 75.

fortis trāctāre serpentēs, brave enough to handle serpents; Hor. C. 1, 37, 26.

nescia hūmānīs precibus mānsuēscere corda, hearts that knew not how to be merciful to human prayers; Georg. 4, 470.

niveus vidērī, snow-white to behold; Hor. C. 4, 2, 59.

Infinitive of Exclamation

961. The infinitive with or without subject accusative is used in exclamations. The interrogative enclitic *-ne* is often attached to the emphatic word: —

hoc nōn vidēre! *the idea of not seeing this!* Fin. 4, 76.

nōn pudēre! *that he shouldn't be ashamed!* Ter. Ph. 233.

mēne inceptō dēsistere! *that I should abandon my purpose!* Aen. 1, 37.

Infinitive of Purpose

962. The infinitive is used in poetry to denote purpose, — chiefly with verbs of *motion* and with verbs meaning to *give* or *undertake*: —

nōn Libycōs populāre Penātis vēnimus, *we have not come to pillage the Libyan homes;* Aen. 1, 527.

lōricam dōnat habēre virō, *he gives the man a breastplate to wear;* Aen. 5, 260.

quis sibi rēs gestās Augustī scribere sūmit? *who takes upon himself to write the achievements of Augustus?* Hor. Epis. 1, 3, 7.

The expression *dō bibere*, *give to drink*, occurs in prose as well as poetry.

Historical Infinitive

963. In animated narration the present infinitive may be used instead of the imperfect (rarely the perfect) indicative. The subject is in the nominative.

Beginning with Sallust the historical infinitive is used rarely in dependent clauses, — relative and temporal: —

cottidiē Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre, *every day Caesar demanded grain of the Haedui;* B. G. 1, 16, 1.

Catilīna pollicērī tabulās novās, *Catiline promised abolition of debts;* Sall. Cat. 21, 2.

postquam exui aequālītās, *when equality was overthrown;* Tac. Ann. 3, 26.

Indirect Discourse

964. Direct Discourse is the quotation, without change, of one's own or another's words or thoughts in the form of an *independent* sentence.

Indirect Discourse is the quotation, with the necessary changes of pronouns, tense, person, etc., of one's own or another's words or thoughts in the form of a *dependent* sentence, — the object of a verb of *saying* or *thinking* expressed or implied.

The construction of indirect discourse is used also after verbs of *knowing* and *perceiving*, and after many other verbs which express or suggest in any way the idea of speech or thought.

Declarative Sentences in Indirect Discourse

965. In declarative sentences in indirect discourse the infinitive with subject accusative is used in all principal clauses, the subjunctive in all subordinate clauses.

966. For the use of the tenses of the infinitive in principal clauses see **939, 941-943, 945-947.**

The tenses of the subjunctive are regularly treated according to the rule for the sequence of tenses (see **781**), the sequence being determined by the tense of the verb of *saying* etc., which introduces the indirect discourse. For the treatment of original futures and future perfects, which have no corresponding tenses in the subjunctive, see **794.**

967. The present and perfect subjunctive are often used even when the introductory verb is in a secondary tense; this irregularity (called *repraesentātiō*) is due to a feeling that the statement is made more vivid by representing the action as occurring or as completed in present time. In the course of a long passage in indirect discourse the sequence may change several times.

For the use of the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive with a perfect infinitive after a primary tense see **793.**

968. Verbs of *remembering* with the present infinitive (see **942**) take the secondary sequence.

969. Examples of declarative sentences in indirect discourse: —

prōpōnit esse nōnnūllos quōrum auctōritās apud plēbem plūrimum valeat, *he declares that there are some whose authority among the common people is very great*; B. G. I, 17, 1.

satis esse causae arbitrābātur quārē in eum animadverteret, *he thought there was sufficient reason why he should punish him*; B. G. I, 19, 1.

rēgi patefēcit Numidiae partem quam nunc peteret tum adventūram, *he made it clear to the king that the part of Numidia which he now sought would then come to him*; Sall. Jug. 111, 1.

erilem filium eius dūxisse audiō uxōrem, *I hear that his master's son has got married*; Ter. Ph. 39.

lēgātī vēnērunt, quī sē ea quae imperāssent factūrōs pollicērentur, *envoys came, to promise that they would do what he should order*; B. G. 4, 22, 1.

Ariovistus respondit, sī iterum experīri velint, sē parātum esse dēcertāre, *Ariovistus replied that, if they wanted to try a second time, he was ready to fight it out*; B. G. I, 44, 4. (**Repraesentātiō.**)

hunc aiunt, cum taurum immolāvisset, mortuum concidis, *they say that after he had sacrificed the bull he felt dead*; Brut. 43. (Tense of the subordinate verb due to the perfect infinitive.)

meministine mē dicere fore in armīs certō diē, quī diēs futūrus esset ante diem sextum Kal. Novembrīs, C. Manlium? *do you remember that I said that Gaius Manlius would be under arms on a certain day, which day would be the sixth before the Kalends of November?* Cat. I, 7.

For the occasional omission of the subject of the main verb see **954**.

970. The verb of saying etc. must sometimes be supplied from the context: as, **omnēs Caesarī ad pedēs prōiēcērunt: nōn minus sē id contendere**, *all threw themselves at Caesar's feet, (saying) that no less were they striving for this*, etc.; B. G. I, 31, 2.

971. A comparative with **quam** in indirect discourse is often followed by the accusative and infinitive: as, **nōnne adfirmāvī quidvis mē potius perpersūrum quam ex Italiā exitūrum?** *did I not declare that I would endure anything whatever rather than leave Italy?* Fam. 2, 16, 3. The subjunctive with **ut** may be used; see **801**.

972. When one subject is compared with another in indirect discourse by means of such phrases as *īdem quī*, a comparative with *quam*, *tantus quantus*, etc., and it is apparent that the second verb would be the same as the first, the second verb, which would naturally be in a finite mood, is omitted, and its subject is attracted into the accusative:—

tē suspicor eīdem rēbus quibus mē ipsum commovērī, I suspect that you are disturbed by the same things as myself; Cat. M. 1. (properly, quibus ipse commoveor.)

aiēbat sē tantīdem aestimāsse quantū Sacerdōtem, he said he put the same price on it as Sacerdos; Verr. 3, 215. (properly, quantū Sacerdōs aestimāset.)

973. A subordinate clause may have the indicative, (a) if it is not a part of the indirect discourse, but an explanatory statement; or, (b) if the writer wishes to emphasize or vouch for the statement contained in the clause:—

Caesarī renūtiātur Helvētiīs esse in animō iter in Santonum finēs facere, quī nōn longē ā Tolōsātium finibus absunt, quae civitās est in prōvinciā, it is announced to Caesar that the Helvetians are planning to make an expedition into the territory of the Santones, who are not far distant from the territory of the Tolosates, a state which is in the province; B. G. 1, 10, 1.

videō esse hīc in senātū quōsdam quī tēcum ūnā fuērunt, I see that here in the senate there are certain ones who were with you; Cat. 1, 8.

974. Clauses introduced by a relative pronoun are sometimes independent; see **710**. In indirect discourse these are treated as principal clauses and have the accusative and infinitive. So also, occasionally, clauses introduced by *cum*, *ut* (*as*), *quamquam*, etc.:—

cēnsent ūnum quemque nostrum mundi esse partem, ex quō (= et ex eō) illud nātūrā cōsequi, they think that each one of us is a part of the universe, from which this naturally follows; Fin. 3, 64.

ex quō intellegi potuit, ut mare ventōrum vī agitārī, sīc populum Rōmānum hominum sēditiosōrum vōcibus concitārī, from which it could be understood that as the sea is disturbed by the violence of the winds, so the Roman people are stirred by the words of agitators; Clu. 138.

Questions in Indirect Discourse

975. The subjunctive is used in any question in indirect discourse which in its original form had its verb in the second person. If in its original form the verb was in the first or third person, a real question, which expected an answer, has the subjunctive; a rhetorical question, which expected no answer, has the accusative and infinitive:—

sī bonum dūcerent, quid prō noxiō damnāssent? *if they thought him a good man, why had they condemned him as guilty?* Liv. 27, 34, 13.

num recentium iniūriarum memoriam (sē) dēpōnere posse? *could he lay aside the memory of recent wrongs?* B. G. 1, 14, 3.

976. An original subjunctive in a deliberative question is always retained in indirect discourse.

Commands in Indirect Discourse

977. Commands—whether originally imperative or subjunctive—have the verb in the subjunctive in indirect discourse. The tense is usually determined by the regular principles of sequence:—

nūntius vēnit bellum Athēniēnsis indixisse; quārē venīre nē dubitāret, *a message came that the Athenians had declared war; wherefore he should not hesitate to come;* Nep. Ages. 4, 1.

respondit: sī ab armīs discēdere velint, sē adiūtōre ūtantur lēgātōs-que ad Caesarem mittant, *he replied: if they wanted to lay down their arms, let them take his advice and send envoys to Caesar;* B. G. 5, 41, 7. (Tenses due to *repraesentātiō*.)

978. Some verbs of *saying* etc. may denote *will* or *desire* and are then followed by an object clause: as, *Pythia respondit ut moenibus ligneis sē mūnīrent,* *the Pythian priestess replied that they should defend themselves with wooden walls;* Nep. Them. 2, 6.

Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse

979. The protasis is a subordinate clause and has the subjunctive.

The apodosis is a main clause and has the accusative

and infinitive, unless it was originally imperative or hortatory, in which case the subjunctive is used; see 914, 977.

The tenses are in general determined by the principles of sequence.

Conditions of Fact or Possibility

980. These may be treated together, as there is no distinction in indirect discourse between future conditions that were originally in the indicative and those that were originally in the subjunctive. In both cases the tense of the protasis is determined by the sequence and the apodosis has the future infinitive.

Examples: —

Iovem sic aiunt philosophi, si Graecē loquātur, loqui, *the philosophers say that Jove speaks thus, if he speaks Greek; Brut. 121.* (Direct: si loquitur . . . loquitur.)

respondit: si quid ille se velit, illum ad se venire oportere, *he replied: if he (Caesar) wanted anything of him, he ought to come to him; B. G. 1, 34, 2.* (Direct: si vult . . . oportet; present subjunctive due to repraesentatiō.)

nōn dicam nē illud quidem, si maximē in culpā fuerit Apollōnius, tamen in hominem honestissimum tam graviter animadverti nōn oportuisse, *I will not say this either, that if Apollonius was very much at fault, still so severe a punishment ought not to have been inflicted upon a most honorable man; Verr. 5, 20.* (Direct: si fuit . . . oportuit.)

erat scriptum, nisi domum reverteretur, se capitis eum damnātūrōs, *it had been written that unless he returned home, they would condemn him to death; Nep. Paus. 3, 4.* (Direct: nisi revertēris . . . damnābimus.)

sēnsit, si in turbam exisset ab homine tam necessariō se relictum, futurum ut ceteri cōsiliū sequerentur, *he saw that if it should get abroad that he had been deserted by a man so closely connected, the result would be that others would adopt that policy; Nep. Dat. 6, 3.* (Direct: si exierit . . . sequentur; see 946.)

voluptātem si ipsa pro se loquatur concessuram arbitror dignitati, *I think that if Pleasure should speak for herself, she would admit her inferiority to Merit; Fin. 3, 1.* (Direct: si loquatur . . . concēdat.)

Conditions Contrary to Fact

981. Conditional sentences of the third type (contrary to fact) are treated in indirect discourse as follows:—

The mood and tense of the protasis remain unchanged.

The verb of the apodosis, if active, takes the form of the future active participle with **fuisse** (rarely **esse**).

The verb of the apodosis, if passive, is represented in indirect discourse by **futūrum fuisse** followed by **ut** with the imperfect subjunctive.

Examples:—

illud Asia cōgitet, nullam calamitatem āfutūram fuisse, sī hōc imperiō nōn tenērētur, *let Asia think this, that no disaster would be lacking, if she were not held by this government*; Q. Fr. 1, 1, 34. (Direct: **abesset . . . sī nōn tenērer.**)

clāmītābat Eburōnēs, sī ille adesset, ad castra (nōn) ventūrōs esse, *he kept crying out that the Eburones, if he were there, would not be coming to the camp*; B. G. 5, 29, 2. (Direct: **sī adessem . . . venīrent.**)

(appārēbat), sī diūtius vixisset, Hamilcare duce Poenōs arma Ītaliae inlātūrōs fuisse, *it was evident that if he had lived longer, under the leadership of Hamilcar the Carthaginians would have brought war into Italy*; Liv. 21, 2, 2. (Direct: **sī vixisset . . . intulissent.**)

nisi nūntiū dē Caesaris victōriā essent allātī, exīstimābant plērīque futūrum fuisse utī (oppidum) āmitterētur, *unless reports about Caesar's victory had been brought, most people thought that the town would have been lost*; B. C. 3, 101, 3. (Direct: **nisi essent allātī . . . āmissum esset.**)

982. If the verb of the apodosis was in the indicative in the direct form (see 921-923), it becomes the perfect infinitive in the indirect: as, **Platōnem exīstimō, sī genus forēnse dīcendī trāctāre voluisset, gravissimē potuisse dīcere**, *I think that Plato, if he had wanted to cultivate the forensic style of oratory, might have been a most impressive speaker*; Off. 1, 4. (Direct: **sī voluisset . . . potuit.**)

Implied Indirect Discourse

983. The subjunctive is often used in dependent clauses which would naturally have the indicative and, when so used, indicates that the clause contains an indirect quotation of words or thought: —

Paetus omnēs librōs, quōs frāter suus reliquisset, mihi dōnāvit,
Paetus gave me all the books which (he said) his brother had left;
 Att. 2, 1, 12.

cottidiē Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum quod essent polliciti flāgitāre,
every day Caesar demanded of the Haedui the grain which (as
he reminded them) they had promised; B. G. 1, 16, 1.

nisi restituissent statuās, vehementer minātur, *he threatens them*
violently unless they restore the statues; Verr. 2, 162. (Apodosis
implied in minātur.)

For the use of this type of subjunctive in causal clauses see 886.

PARTICIPLES

984. Participles are verbal adjectives. Like adjectives they qualify nouns and agree with them in gender, number, and case; like verbs they have voice and tense and govern cases.

The Use of the Tenses of the Participle

985. A participle denotes time which is relative to that of the verb in its clause.

986. The present participle represents action as *in progress* at the time of the action of the verb: —

pugnāns occiditur, *he is killed while fighting; B. G. 5, 37, 5.*

manūs tendentēs vitam ōrābant, *stretching out their hands they begged*
for life; Liv. 44, 42, 4.

Like the present indicative (see 749), the present participle may denote action begun in the past and still continuing: as, *haec sēcum diū volvēns,* *having considered this for a long time; Sall. Jug. 113, 1.* In poetry and late prose it sometimes refers

to the future and denotes *purpose*: as, *lĕgātī missī auxilium ōrantēs*, *envoys were sent to ask help*; Liv. 21, 6, 2.

987. The perfect participle represents action as *completed* at the time of the action of the verb: —

hīs dē rēbus Caesar certior factus nihil (Gallis) committendum existimāvit, *having been informed about these things, Caesar thought that nothing should be entrusted to the Gauls*; B. G. 4, 5, 1.

lĕgātī dixerunt rē dēliberātā ad Caesarem reversūrōs, *the envoys said that when the matter had been considered they would return to Caesar*; B. G. 4, 9, 1.

988. The perfect participle of some deponent verbs represents action as *in progress*; so, regularly, *ratus*, *solitus*, and *veritus*; and, often, *arbitrātus*, *ausus*, *conātus*, *cōnfisus*, *diffisus*, *gavisus*, *locūtus*, *secūtus*, and *ūsus*: —

Metellum esse ratī portās clausēre, *thinking it was Metellus, they closed the gates*; Sall. Jug. 69, 1.

isdem ducibus ūsus Numidās subsidiō oppidānis mittit, *using the same guides he sends the Numidians to help the townspeople*; B. G. 2, 7, 1.

989. This construction is used freely by the poets and later prose-writers, and by them is extended to the perfect participle of passive verbs: —

ad templum ibant tristēs et tūnsae pectora palmis, *they went to the temple in sadness and beating their breasts with their hands*; Aen. 1, 480. (Reflexive use)

trienniō sub Hasdrubale meruit, nullā rē praetermissā, *he served for three years under Hasdrubal, neglecting nothing*; Liv. 21, 4, 10.

990. The future active participle represents action as *still to be performed* at the time of the action of the verb.

The future passive participle represents action as *intended*, *necessary*, or *proper*. Digitized by Microsoft®

The Uses of Participles

991. Participles are used to express a variety of relations, — especially, *time, cause, means, manner, situation, condition, opposition*: —

omne malum nāscēns facile opprimitur, every evil is easily overcome at its birth; Phil. 5, 31. (Time)

longius prōsequi veritus, ad Cicerōnem pervēnit, because he was afraid to follow further, he came to Cicero; B. G. 5, 52, 1. (Cause)

quae contuēns animus accēdit ad cognitiōnem deōrum, by contemplating these things the mind arrives at a knowledge of the gods; N. D. 2, 153. (Means)

flentēs implorābant, they begged with tears; B. G. 1, 51, 3. (Manner)

stantem urbem reliquit, he left the city standing; Cat. 2, 2. (Situation)

appārēbat nōn admissōs Carthāginem itūrōs, it became apparent that, if they were not given audience, they would go to Carthage; Liv. 21, 9, 4. (Condition)

nōn mihi nisi admonitō vēnisset in mentem, it would not have occurred to me unless I had been reminded; De Or. 2, 180. (Condition)

ibi perturbātus Lentulus tamen et signum et manum suam cognōvit, thereupon, though thrown into confusion, Lentulus identified his hand and seal; Cat. 3, 12. (Opposition)

For the use of participles as adjectives see **615-617**. The compound forms of passive verbs are developed from the use of the perfect participle as a predicate adjective.

For the use of participles as substantives see **635-639**.

992. Verbs of *perception* take either the accusative and infinitive or a present participle in agreement with the accusative object: —

Catōnem vīdī in bibliothēcā sedentem, I saw Cato sitting in the library; Fin. 3, 7.

tē audiam Hibērum narrāntem loca, I shall hear you describing the country of the Spaniards; Catull. 9, 6.

993. The present participle is used with verbs meaning to *represent*: —

Polyphēmum **Homērus** cum ariete conloquentem facit, *Homer represents Polyphemus talking with the ram*; Tusc. 5, 115.

ipsōs **indūxī** loquentēs, *I have introduced them as speaking in person*; Lael. 3.

The infinitive is used rarely if the dependent verb is active, but, for lack of a present passive participle, it is the regular construction if the dependent verb is passive: as, **cōstruī** **ā** **deō** **mundum** facit, *he represents the world being constructed by God*; N. D. 1, 19.

994. The perfect participle often expresses an idea which in English would be in the form of a coördinate clause: as, **ut hōs** **in Britanniam** **trāductōs** **necāret**, *that he should take these over to Britain and put them to death*; B. G. 5, 6, 5.

995. The perfect participle in agreement with an object of **habeō** emphasizes the continued effect of an action: —

pecūniās **magnās** **collocātās** **habent**, *they have large sums of money invested*; Manil. 18.

perfidiam **Haeduōrum** **perspectam** **habēbat**, *he had observed the faithlessness of the Haedui*; B. G. 7, 54, 2.

996. In early Latin participles are used similarly with **reddō** and **cūrō**; in late Latin with **dō**; in classical Latin **missus** with **faciō**: —

hic **trānsāctum** **reddet** **omne**, *he will get it all done*; Pl. Capt. 345.

strātās **legiōnēs** **Latinōrum** **dabō**, *I will overwhelm the legions of the Latins*; Liv. 8, 6, 6.

Mānlium **missum** **fēcit**, *he let Manlius go*; Off. 3, 112.

997. The perfect participle in agreement with a substantive often contains the main idea of the phrase: —

angēbant **virum** **Sicilia** **Sardiniaque** **āmissae**, *the loss of Sicily and Sardinia troubled the man*; Liv. 21, 1, 5.

ēreptae **virginis** **irā**, *with rage at the rescue of the maiden*; Aen. 2, 413.

post hanc urbem **conditam**, *since the founding of this city*; Cat. 3, 15.

So, rarely, the present participle: as, **fugiēns** **Pompēius** **hominēs** **mouet**, *Pompey's flight is stirring up the people*; Att. 7, 11, 4.

For the ablative of the perfect participle with **opus est** and **ūsus est** see 574.

998. The future active participle is used chiefly with forms of **sum** in the active periphrastic conjugation. For its use as an adjective see **616**.

999. The future active participle is used, chiefly in poetry and later prose, to denote *purpose*: —

complēbant litora visūri Aeneadas, *they filled the shores, to see those with Aeneas*; Aen. 5, 107.

mīsit lēgātōs ōrātūrōs auxilia, *he sent envoys to ask for reinforcements*; Tac. Ann. 2, 46.

The future passive participle is used in the following constructions: —

1000. (1) With forms of **sum** in the passive periphrastic conjugation.

The neuter singular is often used impersonally; transitive verbs used impersonally sometimes take an accusative object; the dative is common with intransitive verbs, and the ablative is used with **ūtōr** etc.: —

nunc est bibendum, *now we must drink*; Hor. C. 1, 37, 1.

aeternās poenās in morte timendumst, *we have to fear eternal punishment in death*; Lucr. 1, 111.

resistendum senectūti est, *one must resist old age*; Cat. M. 35.

ūtendum exercitiōnibus modicis, *one must take moderate exercise*; Cat. M. 35.

1001. (2) As an adjective; see **616**.

In agreement with the object of certain verbs, — especially verbs meaning *receive* or *deliver*, — the future passive participle denotes *purpose*: —

agrum dē nostrō patre colendum habēbat, *he had a field to cultivate, from my father*; Ter. Ph. 364.

hōs Haeduīs cūstōdiendōs trādit, *he hands them over to the Haedui to guard*; B. G. 6, 4, 4.

signum conlocandum locāverunt, *they contracted to have the statue erected*; Cat. 3, 20.

1002. (3) As the *gerundive*. Microsoft®

Gerundive and Gerund

1003. The future passive participle is used most often as a verbal adjective in agreement with a noun, referring either to present or to future time, and containing no idea of intention, necessity, or propriety. When so used it is called the *gerundive*.

The *gerund* is the neuter singular of the gerundive used as an active verbal noun in the genitive, dative, accusative and ablative. As a noun it is governed by other words; as a verb it may have an object.

The essential difference between the gerundive and the gerund is the fact that the gerundive is grammatically passive and agrees with a substantive, while the gerund is grammatically active and, if transitive, has an object.

1004. The gerund of an *intransitive* verb may be used in any oblique case. The gerund of a *transitive* verb is practically never used in the dative or accusative, or in the ablative with a preposition; it occurs rarely in the genitive, more often in the ablative without a preposition, but in both cases chiefly when the object is a neuter pronoun or neuter plural adjective used substantively.

Case-Constructions of Gerundive and Gerund

1005. The case-constructions of the gerundive phrase and the gerund, so far as they are found, are the same as those of nouns.

1006. The genitive is used with substantives and adjectives:—

proeli committendī signum, the signal for beginning the battle; B. G. 2, 21, 3.

insuētus nāvigandī, unused to sailing; B. G. 5, 6, 3.

cupidus tē audiendī, eager to hear you; De Or. 2, 16.

1007. With *causā* or *grātiā* the genitive expresses *purpose*:—
exercendae memoriae grātiā, for the sake of training the memory;

• Cat. M. 38.

praedandī causā, for the purpose of plundering; B. G. 2, 17, 4.

1008. The genitive of quality sometimes serves to express *purpose*: as, *ut mitterent Rōmam ōrātōrēs pācis petendae*, *that they should send to Rome envoys to seek peace*; Liv. 9, 45, 18.

1009. With *nostrī*, *vestrī*, and *suī*, which are genitive singular neuter in form (see 231), the gerundive ends in *-ī*, regardless of gender and number: as, *vestrī adhortandī causā*, *for the sake of encouraging you*; Liv. 21, 41, 1.

1010. The genitive of the gerund sometimes takes an objective genitive instead of a direct object: as, *exemplōrum ēligendī potestās*, *a chance to select examples*; Inv. 2, 5.

1011. The dative is used with a few verbs and, especially in late writers, with adjectives denoting *fitness* (see 486): —

praeesse agrō colendō, *to be in charge of the cultivation of the land*; Rosc. Am. 50.

quisque pugnandō locum cēperat, *each one had taken a place for fighting*; Sall. Cat. 61, 2.

perferendis militum mandātis idōneus, *suitable for carrying out the instructions of the soldiers*; Tac. Ann. 1, 23.

cum solvendō civitatēs nōn essent, *since the states were not solvent (for paying)*; Fam. 3, 8, 2.

1012. The dative is used with the titles of officials, to indicate the purpose of their office, with *comitia*, *election*, etc. (see 486): —

triumvirōs colōniae dēdūcendae, *triumvirs for founding a colony*; Liv. 6, 21, 4.

comitia cōsulibus rogandīs, *an election for nominating consuls*; Div. 1, 33.

diēs rogātiōni ferendae, *the day for proposing the measure*; Att. 1, 14, 5.

1013. The accusative is used with the preposition *ad*; rarely with other prepositions: —

ille ad dicendam causam adest, *he is here to make excuses*, Ter. Ph. 266.

mē vocās ad scribendum, *you summon me to write*; Or. 34.

ob rem iūdicandam pecūniam accipere, *to take money for passing judgment on a case*; Verr. 2, 78.

1014. The ablative is used in many of the ordinary noun-constructions, — means, cause, time, etc.; it may be used either with or without a preposition: —

quaerendis vadis, by seeking shallow water; Liv. 21, 28, 12.

flendō turgidulī rubent ocellī, her eyes are swollen and red with weeping; Catull. 3, 18.

partiendō praedam, by distributing the booty; Liv. 21, 5, 5.

industria in agendō, energy in action; Manil. 29.

cōsiliū illud dē occlūdendis aedibus, that idea about shutting up the house; Ter. Eun. 784.

THE SUPINE

1015. The Supine in *-um* is used with verbs of motion to express *purpose* (see 517); it may be followed by the same construction as its verb: —

ad Caesarem grātulātum convēnērunt, they came to Caesar to congratulate him; B. G. 1, 30, 1.

lēgātōs mittunt rogātum auxilium, they send envoys to ask for aid; B. G. 1, 11, 2.

Maniliō filiam nūptum dat, he gives his daughter to Manilius in marriage (to marry); Liv. 1, 49, 9.

nōn Grāis servitum mātribus iō, I shall not go to be a slave to the Greek matrons; Aen. 2, 786.

1016. The future passive infinitive, consisting of the supine in *-um* with *irī*, is rare except in Cicero. For the usual substitute see 845.

1017. The Supine in *-ū* is used with a few adjectives and with the nouns *fās* and *nefās*; it never takes a dependent case: —

terribilēs vīsū fōrmæ, figures terrible to see; Aen. 6, 277.

vidētis nefās esse dictū miseram fuisse tālem senectūtem, you see it is wrong to say that such an old age was unhappy; Cat. M. 13.

1018. The supine in *-ū* is used rarely with *opus est*, and with *dignus* and *indignus*: —

ita dictū opus est, you must speak so; Ter. Heaut. 941.

nihil dignum dictū, nothing worth mentioning; Liv. 4, 30, 4.

The only supines in *-ū* in common use are *audītū*, *cognitū*, *dictū*, *factū*, and *vīsū*.

SYNTAX OF PREPOSITIONS

The uses of prepositions have been treated in connection with the cases of nouns.

1019. The following prepositions are used only with the *accusative*:—

ad	contrā	pōne
adversum	ergā	post
adversus	extrā	praeter
ante	īnfrā	prope
apud	inter	propter
circā	intrā	secundum
circiter	iūxtā	suprā
circum	ob	trāns
cis	penes	ultrā
citrā	per	versus

1020. The following prepositions are used only with the *ablative*:—

ā, ab, abs	dē	prō
absque	ē, ex	sine
cōram	prae	tenus
cum		

1021. **Ā** is used only before consonants; **ab** is used before vowels and **h**, and is found also before most consonants; **abs** is common only in the phrase **abs tē**.

Absque is very rare except in early Latin in coördinate protases (see 926).

Ex is used before vowels and **h**; **ē** or **ex**, but more often **ex**, before consonants.

Tenus is used chiefly in late Latin and is postpositive; it is sometimes used as a substantive (meaning *the length*) with the genitive.

1022. The following prepositions are used with either the *accusative* or the *ablative*:—

in	sub	subter	super
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1023. *In* and *sub*, when used with the accusative, denote *place whither*; when used with the ablative, *place where*. *Subter* is used regularly with the accusative; rarely, in poetry, with the ablative. *Super*, meaning *upon*, *at*, or *in addition to*, is used with the accusative; meaning *concerning*, with the ablative.

1024. Dissyllabic prepositions are sometimes *postpositive*; that is, they follow the noun. *Ad*, *cum*, and *dē* often follow a relative, and *cum* is regularly attached to a personal or reflexive pronoun as an enclitic.

1025. Certain adjectives and adverbs are sometimes used as prepositions. The following are used with the *accusative*: —

<i>propior</i>	<i>propius</i>	<i>prīdiē</i>	<i>clam</i>
<i>proximus</i>	<i>proximē</i>	<i>postridiē</i>	<i>ūsque</i>

1026. *Propior*, *proximus*, *propius*, and *proximē* are used also with the dative, and with the ablative with *ab*. *Prīdiē* and *postridiē* are used also with the genitive. *Clam* occurs very rarely as a preposition except in early Latin. *Ūsque* is rarely used as a preposition; it is commonly combined with *ad* in the phrase *ūsque ad*.

1027. The following adverbs are sometimes used as prepositions with the *ablative*: —

<i>palam</i>	<i>procul</i>	<i>simul</i>
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The use of these words as prepositions occurs only in poetry and late prose. In Ciceronian prose *procul* is always used with *ab*, *simul* with *cum*.

SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS

1028. Conjunctions are either *coördinating* or *subordinating*. Coördinating conjunctions connect two members, — words, phrases, or clauses, — usually of similar grammatical nature; if clauses, both are independent or both are dependent. Subordinating conjunctions connect dependent clauses with the clauses upon which they depend.

COÖRDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

(a) Copulative Conjunctions

1029. The copulative conjunctions are **et**, **-que**, **atque** (**ac**), **neque** (**nec**), **nēve** (**neu**), **etiam**, and **quoque**.

1030. **Et** and **-que** simply connect, but **-que** is used regularly when the two members naturally *belong* together:—

hōs videō et dē rē publicā sententiam rogō, I see them and ask their opinion about the state; Cat. 1, 9.

senātus populusque Rōmānus, the senate and the Roman people; Planc. 90.

1031. **Et** is sometimes used in the sense of **etiam**, *too*, especially before pronouns: as, *et illa iūre laudantur, those things too are justly praised; Tusc. 3, 28.*

1032. When **-que** connects two words it is attached to the second. When the second member is a phrase or clause, it is usually attached to the first word; but if the first word is a preposition, especially if it is monosyllabic, the enclitic may be attached to the second: as, *sub occāsumque sōlis sequi dēstiterunt, and toward sunset they gave up the pursuit; B. G. 2, 11, 6.*

1033. When there are more than two members **et** may precede each, or all but the first, or may be omitted altogether; or, rarely, the last two only are connected, usually by **-que** attached to the last. The repetition of **-que** in a series of more than two members occurs only in poetry.

1034. Two adjectives qualifying the same noun are regularly connected.

1035. **Atque** (**ac**) is used when the second member is more important than the first. It is used also after words of *likeness* or *unlikeness*,—**īdem**, **alius**, **simul**, **contrā**, etc.,—in the sense of *as*, *than*, etc.; also after comparatives, but, with very few exceptions, only when the first member contains a negative:—

simul atque dē Caesaris adventū cognitum est, as soon as the arrival of Caesar was reported; B. G. 5, 3, 3.

nōn dixi secus ac sentiēbam, I did not speak otherwise than I thought; De Or. 2, 24.

haud minus ac iussī faciunt, they do no less than they were ordered; Aen. 3, 561.

For the use of *atque* or *ac* see 1038.

1036. *Neque* (*nec*) is usually equivalent to *et nōn*; *nēve* (*neu*) is equivalent to *et nē*:—

nōn vidērunt nec sciunt, they did not see and do not know; Tull. 24.

utī suae pristināe virtūtis memoriā retinērent neu perturbārentur animō, that they should keep the memory of their former valor and should not be disturbed in mind; B. G. 2, 21, 2.

Neque is sometimes used instead of *nēve*: as, *suādēbit tibi ut discēdās neque verbum ūllum respondeās, he will advise you to go away and answer not a word; Caecil. 52.*

1037. *Nec ūllus* is ordinarily used instead of *et nūllus*, *nec umquam* instead of *et numquam*, etc. But *et* and a negative may be used if the negative belongs to a single word: as, *sī tē Tarentum et nōn Samarobrīvā mīsissem, if I had sent you to Tarentum and not to Samarobriva; Fam. 7, 12, 1.*

1038. *Atque* and *neque* are used before vowels or consonants; *ac* and *nec* are never used in prose before vowels and rarely before *c*, *g*, and *qu*; the poets sometimes violate this principle.

1039. *Etiam* (as a conjunction) and *quoque*, *too*, connect a word with another word to be supplied from the context. *Etiam* usually precedes, *quoque* always follows the word to which it belongs:—

etiamne hoc negābis? will you deny this also? (i.e. this and something else); Pl. Am. 760.

patriae quis exsul sē quoque fūgit? what exile from his country has escaped himself also? (i.e. himself and his country); Hor. C. 2, 16, 19.

(b) Disjunctive Conjunctions

1040. The disjunctive conjunctions are *aut*, *vel*, *-ve*, *sive* (*seu*), and *an*. These denote *difference* or *choice*.

1041. *Aut* connects alternatives which are as a rule essentially different and of which one excludes the other: as, *hic vincendum aut moriendum est*, *here you must conquer or die*; Liv. 21, 43, 5.

1042. *Vel* (an old imperative of *volō*) implies a *choice* between alternatives which are not mutually exclusive, or merely between forms of expression: —

orābant ut sibi auxilium ferret, vel exercitum modo Rhēnum transportāret, *they begged him to bring them help or (if he wished) only bring his army across the Rhine*; B. G. 4, 16, 5.

post obitum vel potius excessum Rōmulī, *after the death or rather the departure of Romulus*; Rep. 2, 52.

Vel sometimes introduces an example and may be translated *for instance*; it is used before superlatives in the sense of *even*. In poetry and late prose it is used instead of *aut*.

1043. *Sive* (*seu*) as a disjunctive conjunction denotes a non-essential distinction or uncertainty on the part of the speaker or writer: —

quid perturbātius hōc ab urbe discessū sive potius turpissimā fugā? *what more like a panic than this departure from the city or rather this most disgraceful flight?* Att. 8, 3, 3.

urbem mātī seu novercae reliquit, *he left the city to his mother or (if the other story is true) to his stepmother*; Liv. 1, 3, 3.

For *sive* introducing a protasis see 910.

1044. The enclitic *-ve* denotes a non-essential distinction; it usually connects words, phrases, or dependent clauses: —

amīcī rēgis duo trēsve, *two or three friends of the king*; Att. 6, 1, 3.
dēcrētum ut cōsulēs sortirentur comparārentve inter sē, *it was decreed that the consuls should draw lots or arrange between themselves*; Liv. 24, 10, 2.

For the use of *an* see 372-379.

1045. Both copulative and disjunctive conjunctions may be used as *correlatives*, — that is, they may stand before each alternative or before each member of a series of three or more: as, **et . . . et**, *both . . . and*; **neque . . . neque**, *neither . . . nor*; **aut . . . aut**, *either . . . or*; in poetry and later prose, **-que . . . -que** and **-que . . . ac**; when one member is affirmative and the other negative, **et . . . neque** or **neque . . . et**. For the use of **cum . . . tum** see 301.

Many adverbs are used in this way, losing wholly or partly their adverbial force: as, **nunc . . . nunc**, **modo . . . modo**, **quā . . . quā**.

(c) Adversative Conjunctions

1046. The adversative conjunctions are **autem**, **sed**, **tamen**, **at**, etc. These usually denote *modification* or *contradiction*.

1047. **Autem** is the weakest, denoting *contrast* or merely *transition*; it may usually be translated *however*, but sometimes, when there is no suggestion of contrast, it may be translated *moreover*. **Autem** is postpositive, — that is, it stands after the first (sometimes after the second) word of its clause.

1048. **Sed**, **vērūm**, and **cēterum**, *but*, contradict or modify a previous statement; **sed** is sometimes used in a weaker sense, simply to introduce a new thought or to resume an old one. **Vērō**, *but, in fact*, is stronger except in the historians, where it is often equivalent to **autem**; **vērō** is postpositive.

1049. **Tamen**, *nevertheless, yet*, introduces a statement in opposition to a previous one which is in form or sense concessive or adversative; it may stand first in its clause or follow an emphatic word.

1050. **At**, *but* (sometimes **ast** in poetry), introduces an opposing argument or the imaginary objection of an opponent or a sharp transition of thought. Introducing an apodosis it may

be translated *at least*: as, **sī genus hūmānum temnitis, at spērāte deōs memorēs**, *if you scorn the human race, at least expect the gods to remember*; Aen. 1, 542.

Atquē, *and yet*, is an emphatic form of **at**.

1051. The following correlative uses of adversative conjunctions are common:—

nōn solum (or **nōn modo**) . . . **sed etiam**, *not only . . . but also*.
nōn modo nōn . . . **sed nē** . . . **quidem**, *not only not . . . but not even*.

But **nōn modo** (followed by **nē . . . quidem**) is used instead of **nōn modo nōn** if the two members have a verb in common and the verb stands in the second member: as, **nōn modo praesidī quicquam sed nē nūntius quidem clādis Rōmam est missus**, *not only no guard, but not even a messenger of the disaster was sent to Rome*; Liv. 5, 38, 9.

(d) Logical Conjunctions

1052. The logical conjunctions are **itaquē**, **igitur**, **ergō**, etc. These introduce a statement which is the logical result of a preceding statement. **Igitur** is usually postpositive.

(e) Causal Conjunctions

1053. The causal conjunctions are **nam**, **namque**, **enim**, **etenim**. These introduce the reason for a preceding statement or an explanation of it.

Enim is postpositive except in Plautus and Terence, where it almost always has its original meaning of *indeed*, *really*, and may stand at the beginning of its clause.

ASYNDETON

1054. Asyndeton is the omission of a coördinating conjunction between members that would naturally be connected. This occurs especially in lively narrative and is more common when there are more than two members than when there are

only two; see 1033. It occurs also in certain common combinations: as, **Iuppiter Optimus Maximus**; and when the year is designated by the consuls' names (unless only the **nōmen** or **cognōmen** is given): as, **M. Messallā M. Pisōne cōsulibus**, *in the consulship of Marcus Messalla and Marcus Piso*; B. G. 1, 2, 1.

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Subordinating conjunctions,—**cum, ut, quamquam, sī**, etc.,—are treated under the head of Subordinate Clauses.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS

1055. The arrangement of words in a clause depends to a greater or less degree upon their relative importance. It is based upon the principle that the elements of the thought are expressed in order of emphasis, the subject being normally the most emphatic. The position of the verb, which normally stands at the end, is an apparent exception to this principle, but in most clauses the verb serves only to make definite an idea which has been already anticipated from the meaning or construction of the preceding words.

1056. The normal order, so far as one may be formulated, is as follows:—

1. Subject.
2. Words qualifying the subject (not necessarily important, but closely connected in sense with the subject, and really forming a part of it).
3. Direct Object (if there is one).
4. Adverbs qualifying the verb.
5. Verb.

An indirect object stands normally either before or after a direct object (if there is one). The position of other elements (for example, ablatives of cause, means, etc., and prepositional phrases) is determined in part by the emphasis which the writer wishes to give to them.

The following details are noteworthy:—

1057. (1) Qualifying words normally follow the words which they qualify; these include descriptive and possessive adjectives, indefinite pronominal adjectives, ordinal numerals, appositives, and genitives.

But the following qualifying words normally precede the words which they qualify:— demonstrative adjectives (except *ille* when it means *the well-known*), adjectives of quantity (*multus*, *tōtus*, etc.), and cardinal numerals.

1058. (2) Relative and interrogative words normally stand first in their clauses; also demonstrative words or phrases which serve to connect a clause with a preceding one: as, *ad eās rēs cōficiendās Orgetorix dēligitur*, *to accomplish these things Orgetorix is chosen*; B. G. 1, 3, 3.

1059. (3) When a noun is accompanied by a qualifying word, a case-form depending either upon the noun or upon the qualifying word usually stands between them:—

māiōre iūmentōrum quam hominum perniciē, *with greater loss of baggage-animals than men*; Liv. 21, 35, 1.

subiectōs Alpīnīs montibus campōs, *the fields lying at the foot of the Alps*; Liv. 21, 35, 8.

1060. (4) Vocatives usually stand after one or more words in the sentence.

1061. (5) Most adverbs normally precede the words which they qualify.

1062. (6) A monosyllabic preposition is often inserted between an adjective and its noun: as, *ūnā ex parte*, *on one side*; B. G. 1, 2, 3. A preposition is often separated from its noun by a qualifying word: as, *ā Tolōsātium finibus*, *from the territory of the Tolosates*; B. G. 1, 10, 1. For postpositive prepositions see **1024**.

1063. (7) A governing word is often inserted between a noun and its qualifying word: as, *eōdem ūsī cōsiliō*, *following the same plan*; B. G. 1, 5, 4.

For postpositive conjunctions see **1047**, **1052**, **1053**.

The normal order is liable to unlimited variation, by which all possible shades of emphasis may be expressed. Emphasis is secured in the following ways:—

1064. (1) By putting a word in a position in the clause earlier than that in which it would normally stand, especially by giving it the first place:—

magna dīs immortalibus habenda est grātia, great gratitude is due to the immortal gods; Cat. 1, 11.

Rōmam quae asportāta sunt, the things which were carried to Rome (contrasted with those left at Syracuse); Verr. 4, 121.

1065. (2) By putting before a noun a qualifying word which would normally follow it:—

Rōmae ad primum nūntium clādis eius cum ingenti terrōre ac tumultū concursus in forum populī est factus, at Rome (emphasized to denote change of scene) at the first news of this disaster, in great alarm and confusion, a crowd of people gathered in the forum (primum and ingenti emphatic); Liv. 22, 7, 6.

cur ego nōn ignōscam, sī anteposuit suam salūtem meae? why should I not forgive him if he put his own safety before mine? Pison. 79.

Emphasis may be given also by separating a qualifying word from the word which it qualifies: as, *haec rēs ūnius est propria Caesaris, this thing belongs to Caesar alone; Marc. 11.*

1066. (3) By putting together words of contrasted meaning or similar origin: as, *quod victōribus victī ultrō inferrent arma, because the conquered actually brought war upon their conquerors; Liv. 21, 1, 3.*

1067. (4) By reversing the order of words in the second pair, when one pair is contrasted with another: as, *finis et Gallis territandī et pavendī fuit Rōmānis, the Gauls ceased to terrify and the Romans to fear; Liv. 21, 25, 13.* This is called *Chiasmus*. The use of the same order in the second pair is called *Anaphora*: as, *prīnceps in proelium ibat, ultimus excēdēbat, he was the first to go into battle, the last to come out; Liv. 21, 4, 8.*

1068. The following facts may be noted regarding subordinate clauses:—

Relative clauses normally follow the clause containing the antecedent; for relative clauses preceding the antecedent see **696**.

Clauses of result, substantive clauses, and indirect questions normally follow the main clause.

Temporal, adversative, conditional, and purpose clauses normally precede the main clause.

When the subject or object of the main and subordinate clauses is the same, or when the subject of one is the object (either direct or indirect) of the other, it usually stands at the beginning of the sentence:—

hostēs, ubi primum nostrōs equitēs cōspexērunt, nostrōs perturbāvērunt, the enemy, as soon as they saw our cavalry, put our men to flight; B. G. 4, 12, 1.

Caesarī cum id nūtiātum est, mātūrat ab urbe proficisci, when this was announced to Caesar, he hastened to set out from the city; B. G. 1, 7, 1.

• 1069. The arrangement of words was affected also by the desire to produce a rhythmical succession of sounds and by the individual habit of the writer. The position of the subject at the beginning and that of the verb at the end were fixed by custom. The position of words in the middle of a clause was not so definitely established; ablatives, prepositional phrases, even forms of the verb *sum* (which do not stand habitually at the end) seem to be placed anywhere in the middle of the clause. These could be shifted without great change of emphasis, and their arrangement is probably often to be explained as a matter of rhythm or habit rather than emphasis.

In poetry the arrangement is affected also by the restrictions of meter and by the possibility of securing emphasis by placing a word at the beginning or end of a verse.

FIGURES OF SYNTAX AND RHETORIC

1070. Alliteration is the repetition of sounds; the term is used most frequently of a series of two or more words beginning with the same letter.

Anacoluthon is a change in the construction of a sentence which leaves the first part without proper grammatical connection:—

cēterae philosophōrum disciplinae . . . eas nihil adiuvāre arbitror, *the other instructions of the philosophers . . . these I think give no help*; Fin. 3, 11.

Analogy is similarity in form or expression; to this are due many forms and constructions.

Anaphora is the use of the same or a similar word in the same place in successive clauses:—

ter si resurgat mūrus aēneus, ter pereat, ter uxor capta virum plōret, *if three times the wall of bronze should rise, three times would it fall, three times would the captive wife bewail her husband*; Hor. C. 3, 3, 65. (See 1067.)

Anastrophe is the use of a preposition after its case.

Antithesis is the juxtaposition of contrasted ideas:—

vincere scis, victoriā ūti nescis, *you know how to conquer, you do not know how to use your victory*; Liv. 22, 51, 4.

Aposiopesis is an abrupt pause in a sentence, for rhetorical effect:—

quōs ego — sed mōtōs praestat compōnere fluctūs, *whom I — but it is better to calm the angry waves*; Aen. 1, 135. (Cf. Anacoluthon.)

Asyndeton; see 1054.

Brachylogy is brevity or condensation of expression:—

nē cūius suōrum populārium mūtātam sēcum fortunam esse vellent, *that they might not wish to change lots with any of their countrymen (sēcum for cum fortunā suā)*; Liv. 21, 45, 6.

Chiasmus; see 1067.

Ellipsis is the omission of one or more words needed to complete the sense:—

ad Carmentis (sc. aedem), at the shrine of Carmentis; Liv. 5, 47, 2.
(See 360 and 407.)

Enallage is the use of one part of speech for another, one number or gender for another, etc.:—

populum lātē rēgem, a people ruling widely (rēgem for rēgnantem);
Aen. 1, 21.

templa Vestae, the temple of Vesta (templa for templum); Hor. C. 1, 2, 16.

Euphemism is the use of mild or agreeable language to soften an unpleasant fact:—

sī quid mihi accidisset, if anything should happen to me (i.e. if I should die); Phil. 1, 10.

Euphony is the choice or arrangement of words for agreeable sound.

Hendiadys is the expression of a complex idea by the use of two nouns in the same case connected by a conjunction, instead of a single noun qualified by an adjective or a genitive:—

quālem pateris libāmus et aurō, such as we offer from golden bowls (for pateris aureis); Georg. 2, 192.

Hypallage is an interchange of grammatical relations:—

in nova fert animus mūtātās dicere fōrmās corpora, my mind prompts me to sing of forms changed into new bodies (for in novās fōrmāa corpora); Ov. Met. 1, 1

Hyperbaton is a violation of the natural order of words:—

per omnis tē deōs orō, by all the gods I pray you; Hor. C. 1, 8, 1.

Hysteron Proteron is a reversal of the logical order:—

moriāmur et in media arma ruāmus, let us die and rush into the midst of arms; Aen. 2, 353.

Litotes is a form of expression which affirms an idea by denying its opposite:—

ducēs nōn indecōrō pulvere sordidōs, leaders stained with no dishonorable dust; Hor. C. 2, 1, 21.

Metaphor is an implied comparison, expressed by the figurative use of words:—

te nōn existumās invidiae incendiō cōnflagrātūrum? do you not think you will be consumed in the fire of hatred? Cat. 1, 29.

Metonymy is the use of a word suggested by another word to which it is related in sense: as, **Mars** for **bellum**, **Cerēs** for **pānis**.

Onomatopoeia is the use of words which suggest by their sound the thing signified:—

vipera nostris sibilet in tumulis et super ossa cubet, may the viper hiss upon my tomb and lie upon my bones; Prop. 5, 7, 53.

Oxymoron is the juxtaposition of contrasted words:—

cum tacent, clāmant, when they are silent, they cry out; Cat. 1, 21.
(Cf. Antithesis.)

Personification is the treatment of inanimate things as persons:—

age dic Latīnum, barbite, carmen, come play a Latin tune, my harp; Hor. C. 1, 32, 3.

Pleonasm is the use of unnecessary words:—

erant itinera duo quibus itineribus exire possent, there were two roads by which they could depart; B. G. 1, 6, 1.

Simile is illustration by comparison:—

senātūs cōsultum inclūsum in tabulis tamquam in vāginā reconditum, a decree of the senate enclosed in our records, like a sword concealed in its scabbard; Cat. 1, 4.

Synecdoche is the use of a part for the whole:—

Gallica temperat ora, he guides the Gallic mouth (i.e. horse); Hor. C. 1, 8, 6.

Synesis is construction according to sense:—

magna pars occisi, a large part were killed; Sall. Jug. 58, 2. (See 736.)

Tmesis is the separation of the parts of a compound word:—

quam rem cumque, whatever thing; Hor. C. 1, 6, 3.
per mihi mirum visum est, it seemed very strange to me; De Or. 1, 214.

Zeugma is the connection of two words with a verb which strictly applies in sense to only one of them:—

nōn lēgātōs neque prima per artem temptāmenta tui pepigī, I sent no envoys nor made my first trial of you by cunning (from pepigī sc. misi with lēgātōs); Aen. 8, 143.

VERSIFICATION

The subject of Versification is not a part of Latin Grammar, but, for the convenience of students, it has been thought best to give a brief general treatment of the subject and to define technical terms in common use.

1071. Latin poetry is based upon *quantity*, each verse consisting of a more or less definitely-established series of long and short syllables. The quantity of syllables is in general the same in poetry as in prose. A syllable is long if its vowel is long, or if its vowel is followed by two consonants (one of which may be at the beginning of the following word); in the latter case the syllable is said to be long *by position*. A syllable is short if its vowel is short and is followed by not more than one consonant. The principles governing the quantity of vowels and diphthongs are given under the head of Sounds, sections 12 to 20; those relating to the length of syllables in sections 23 to 26.

1072. The unit in versification is a short syllable, marked ∪; the time occupied in pronouncing a short syllable is called a *mora*. A long syllable is regarded as the equivalent of two short syllables; it is marked —. A long syllable sometimes stands in the place of a short one; it is then said to be *irrational* and is marked >. On the other hand, a long syllable may be prolonged to fill the time of three *morae* (marked L) or four *morae* (marked LL).

1073. A *verse* is a definite succession of *feet*; each foot is a group of syllables containing a definite number of *morae*.

1074. The following feet are in more or less common use:—

Feet of three *morae*

Trochee, — ∪

Iambus, ∪ —

Tribrach, ∪ ∪ ∪

Feet of five *morae*

Cretic, — ∪ —

Paeon, — ∪ ∪ ∪

Bacchius, ∪ — —

Feet of four *morae*

Dactyl, — ∪ ∪

Anapaest, ∪ ∪ —

Spondee, — —

Proceleusmatic, ∪ ∪ ∪ ∪

Feet of six *morae*

Ionic, — — ∪ ∪

Choriambus, — ∪ ∪ —

1075. If two short syllables stand in place of a long syllable (for example, a tribrach for an iambus), the long syllable is said to be *resolved*. A foot containing an irrational long syllable is itself called *irrational*. A dactyl standing in place of a trochee is called a *cyclic dactyl* and is marked — ∪ ∪ or — ∪ ∪.

1076. One syllable in each foot—usually a long syllable if there is one—is pronounced with greater stress than the others; this stress is called the *ictus* and is marked thus: ˆ ∪ ∪. The syllable having the ictus is called the *thesis* of the foot; the rest of the foot is called the *arsis*. If a long syllable having the ictus is resolved, it is the custom to mark the ictus on the first of the two short syllables, though properly both have it.

1077. Elision. At the end of a word a vowel, a diphthong, or *m* and a preceding vowel are regularly elided before another word beginning with a vowel or *h*. The Romans slurred the final sound; it is our practice to omit it altogether.

The following monosyllables are not elided:—*dō*, *dem*, *rē*, *rem*, *spē*, *spem*, *stō*, *stem*, *sim*, *quī* (plural). In dactylic verse the final syllable of an iambic (∪ —) or *cretic* (— ∪ —) word is rarely elided before a short vowel. Elision is rare if the syllable that would be elided is immediately preceded by a vowel. In all these cases the necessity of elision is avoided by the arrangement of the words.

1078. Hiatus. Sometimes elision does not occur where it regularly would occur; this is called *hiatus*. Hiatus occurs especially when the first word is an interjection, a proper name, or a Greek word. It occurs sometimes in the principal caesura of a verse and, in the dramatists, when there is a change of speakers.

When a long vowel or a diphthong, instead of being elided, is treated as a short syllable, it is called *semi-hiatus*.

1079. Caesura. The ending of a word within a foot is called *caesura*. There may be several caesuras in a verse; at one of these there is likely to be a pause in the sense; this is called the principal caesura or *the* caesura of the verse. It is sometimes impossible to say which is *the* caesura of the verse. A caesura is marked ||.

1080. Diaeresis. If a word and a foot end together it is called *diaeresis*.

1081. Syllaba Anceps. There is a slight pause at the end of a verse. The last syllable (called *syllaba anceps*) may be either long or short; a vowel or *m* preceded by a vowel is usually not elided before a vowel at the beginning of the next verse

1082. An Catalectic Verse is one in which the last foot is complete. A *Catalectic Verse* is one in which the last foot is incomplete; the time is usually made up by a pause marked \wedge if one *mora* is lacking; ∇ if two *morae* are lacking. But in catalectic iambic verse it is assumed that the last arsis is omitted and the preceding thesis is prolonged, thus: $\cup \text{—} \text{—}$.

OCCASIONAL PECULIARITIES

1083. Some kinds of verse are preceded by an introductory syllable or syllables (a short, a long, or two shorts). This is called an *anacrusis* and in a metrical scheme is separated from the rest of the verse thus, $\cdot \cdot$.

1084. Two vowels (or a vowel and a diphthong) belonging to different syllables in one word sometimes coalesce to form a

single syllable: as, *aureā*, Aen. 1, 698; *dehinc*, Aen. 6, 678. This is called *synizesis* or *synaeresis*.

1085. A short vowel is sometimes used as long: as, *vidēt*, Aen. 1, 308; *amōr*, Aen. 12, 668; *liminaquē*, Aen. 3, 91. This is called *diastole*. It occurs almost invariably in the thesis of the foot and is often merely a recurrence to an earlier quantity.

On the other hand a long vowel is sometimes used as short: as, *dedērunt*, Hor. Epis. 1, 4, 7. This is called *systole*. This shortening probably represents in most cases an actually existing pronunciation.

The poets sometimes allow themselves variations of quantity in proper names.

1086. The vowels *i* and *u* are sometimes treated as consonants; the preceding syllable, if its vowel is short, is long by position: as, *ābiētē*, Aen. 5, 663; *gēnuā lābānt*, Aen. 5, 432.

On the other hand consonantal *i* and *u* are sometimes treated as vowels: as, *Gāiūs*, Catull. 10, 30; *sīlūāē*, Hor. C. 1, 23, 4.

1087. Syncope. A short vowel between two consonants is sometimes dropped; this is called *syncope* and probably represents the common pronunciation: as, *repostum* for *repositum*, Aen. 1, 26; *periclō* for *periculō*, Hor. C. 3, 20, 1.

1088. In early Latin final *s* was indistinctly pronounced and does not count in making a syllable long by position. This peculiarity occurs as late as Catullus.

In early Latin the first syllable of *ille*, *illic* (pronoun), *immō*, *quippe*, *inde*, *unde*, *nempe*, and *omnis* is sometimes treated as short.

1089. Iambic Shortening. A long syllable preceded by a short monosyllable (the monosyllable may be the result of elision), or a short initial syllable, and immediately preceded or followed by the ictus, is often treated as short.

1090. Synapheia. One verse is sometimes combined with another by the elision of a vowel, or *m* and a preceding vowel,

at the end of the first verse before a vowel at the beginning of the second. The first verse is said to be *hypermetrical* and the combination is called *synapheia*.

METER

1091. The word *meter* is used of the definite system by which a verse or a *strophe* (a stanza, a group of verses) is measured.

1092. Trochaic, iambic, and anapaestic verses are usually named according to the number of *pairs of feet* (*dipodies*) they contain: *dimeter* (two dipodies), *trimeter* (three), *tetrameter* (four). But they are sometimes named according to the number of feet,—*quaternarius*, *senarius*, *octonarius*; the tetrameter catalectic is regularly called the *septenarius*.

1093. Other verses are named according to the number of *feet* they contain: *tetrameter* (four feet), *pentameter* (five), *hexameter* (six).

1094. Trochaic verses containing cyclic dactyls are called *logaoedic* verses.

Of the various kinds of meter it will be sufficient to describe those two which the student finds in his early reading of Vergil and Ovid,—the Dactylic Hexameter and Pentameter.

The Dactylic Hexameter

1095. The scheme of the dactylic hexameter is as follows:—

— ∞ | — ∞ | — ∞ | — ∞ | — ∞ | — ∞

The fifth foot is almost always a dactyl; when it is a spondee, the verse is called a *spondaic verse*. Spondaic verses usually end with a word of four syllables.

The last syllable (the *syllaba anceps*) may be either long or short.

The principal caesura occurs most often after the thesis of the third foot; less often after the thesis of the fourth, in which case there is usually another caesura after the thesis of the second. Sometimes the principal caesura is between the two short syllables, in the arsis of the third foot.

1096. A caesura immediately after the thesis is called *masculine*; one between the two short syllables of the arsis is called *feminine*.

A diaeresis after the fourth foot is called the *bucolic diaeresis*.

1097. In the second half of the dactylic hexameter, especially in the fifth and sixth feet, word-accent and ictus are very likely to coincide. The last word in the verse is rarely a monosyllable; if it is, it is usually preceded by a monosyllable.

The Dactylic Pentameter

1098. The ancient grammarians divided this verse into five feet and called it *pentameter*. It is now treated as a *hexameter*, lacking the arsis of the third and sixth feet. The thesis of the third foot is prolonged to compensate for the missing arsis. The pentameter is rarely used except in combination with the hexameter, with which it forms the Elegiac Stanza or Distich (couplet). The scheme of the Elegiac Distich is as follows: —

— — ∪ | — ∪ | — ∪ | — ∪ | — ∪ | — ∪
— ∪ | — ∪ | — ∪ | — ∪ | — ∪ | — ∪

Spondees are used only in the first half of the pentameter. The third foot is always a long syllable, and this syllable always ends a word. The last syllable of the verse, as in the hexameter, may be either long or short.

In Ovid, the last word of the pentameter is usually one of two syllables. The sense is usually complete at the end of each stanza.

THE ORAL READING OF VERSE

There are two opinions as to the Roman method of reading verse: —

1099. 1. That the word-accent disappeared when the ictus fell on a different syllable. This is the method in general use.

2. That the word-accent was always heard, and that, when the ictus did not coincide with the word-accent, the ictus also was heard but was less prominent.

AUTHORS AND THEIR WORKS CITED

In citations from Caesar, Cicero, and Vergil the name of the author is omitted. The following abbreviations are used:—

CAESAR:

- B. C., *Bellum Civile*
B. G., *Bellum Gallicum*

Catull., CATULLUS

CICERO:

- Acad., *Academica*
Ad Her., *ad Herennium*

Agr., *de Lege Agraria*

Arch., *pro Archia*

Att., *ad Atticum*

Brut., *Brutus, de Claris Oratoribus*

Caec., *pro Caecina*

Caecil., *Divinatio in Caecilium*

Cael., *pro Caelio*

Cat., *in Catilinam*

Cat. M., *Cato Maior (de Senectute)*

Clu., *pro Cluentio*

Deiot., *pro Deiotaro*

De Or., *de Oratore*

Div., *de Divinatione*

Fam., *ad Familiares*

Fat., *de Fato*

Fin., *de Finibus*

Flacc., *pro Flacco*

Font., *pro Fonteio*

Inv., *de Inventione Rhetorica*

Lael., *Laelius (de Amicitia)*

CICERO:

Legg., *de Legibus*

Lig., *pro Ligario*

Manil., *pro Lege Manilia*

Marc., *pro Marcello*

Mil., *pro Milone*

Mur., *pro Murena*

N. D., *de Natura Deorum*

Off., *de Officiis*

Or., *Orator*

Par., *Paradoxa*

Phil., *Philippicae*

Pison., *in Pisonem*

Planc., *pro Plancio*

Q. Fr., *ad Quintum Fratrem*

Quinct., *pro Quinctio*

Rabir., *pro Rabirio*

Rab. Post., *pro Rabirio Postumo*

Rep., *de Re Publica*

Rosc. Am., *pro Roscio Amerino*

Rosc. Com., *pro Roscio Comoedo*

Sest., *pro Sestio*

Sull., *pro Sulla*

Tull., *pro Tullio*

Tusc., *Tusculanae Disputationes*

Val., *in Valerium*

CICERO:

Verr. a pr., *in Verrem actio I*

Verr., *in Verrem actio II*

HOR., HORACE:

A. P., *de Arte Poetica*

C., *Carmina (Odes)*

Epis., *Epistulae*

Epod., *Epodoi*

S., *Sermones (Satires)*

JUV., JUVENAL

LIV., LIVY

LUCR., LUCRETIVS

NEP., NEPOS:

Ages., *Agesilaus*

Alc., *Alcibiades*

Att., *Atticus*

Dat., *Datames*

Epam., *Epaminondas*

Eum., *Eumenes*

Hamil., *Hamilcar*

Hann., *Hannibal*

Milt., *Miltiades*

Paus., *Pausanias*

Them., *Themistocles*

Timol., *Timoleon*

OV., OVID:

Fast., *Fasti*

H., *Heroides*

Met., *Metamorphoses*

Trist., *Tristia*

PL., PLAUTUS:

Am., *Amphitruo*
 Asin., *Asinaria*
 Bac., *Bacchides*
 Capt., *Captivi*
 Cas., *Casina*
 Cist., *Cistellaria*
 Curc., *Curculio*
 Epid., *Epidicus*
 Merc., *Mercator*
 Mil., *Miles Gloriosus*
 Most., *Mostellaria*
 Pers., *Persa*
 Poen., *Poenulus*
 Ps., *Pseudolus*
 Rud., *Rudens*

PL., PLAUTUS:

Stich., *Stichus*
 Trin., *Trinummus*
 Plin., PLINY, junior:
 Ep., *Epistulae*
 Plin., PLINY, senior:
 H. N., *Historia Naturalis*
 Prop., PROPERTIUS
 Sall., SALLUST
 Cat., *Catilina*
 Jug., *Jugurtha*
 Tac., TACITUS:
 Agr., *Agricola*
 Ann., *Annales*
 H., *Historiae*

Ter., TERENCE:

Ad., *Adelphi*
 And., *Andria*
 Eun., *Eunuchus*
 Heaut., *Heauton Timou-
 roumenos*
 Hec., *Hecyra*
 Ph., *Phormio*

Tibull., TIBULLUS

Val., VALERIUS MAXIMUS

VERGIL:

Aen., *Aeneis*
 Ecl., *Eclogae*
 Georg., *Georgica*

INDEX

The references are to sections. The following abbreviations may be noted : adv. = adverb or adverbial; app. = appositive or apposition; charac. = characteristic; cl. = clause; compar. = comparison; conjug. = conjugation; constr. = construction; cpd. = compound; decl. = declension; loc. = locative; pass. = passive; subj. = subject; subjv. = subjunctive; vb. = verb; w. = with. Other abbreviations will be readily understood.

ā, ab, abs, 1021; w. abl., 528; place whence, 530, 531; agent, 535; cause, 546.

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